The Nation.

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The Week.

For several months dispatches from Washington have given a deplorable account of Mr. Sherman's mental condition, and within the past week the Hawaiian annexation treaty has furnished occasion for what is substantially an announcement to the world that the Secretary of State is in his dotage. The story of the contradictions in which he has involved himself about his own attitude to the treaty has been telegraphed everywhere, so that now not only every European foreign office, but every one who takes enough interest in what is going on to read the newspapers, knows that the gentleman who carries on our foreign affairs and is our official spokesman with every nation with which we have dealings, does not remember in the afternoon what he said in the morning. If all this were the result of an accident—if Mr. Sherman had been appointed when in the full possession of his faculties, and had subsequently lost them—it would be a serious public misfortune; but, far from such being the case, he was made Secretary of State with at least ample warning to the President and the Senate that his mind was going, and, in order that the affairs of the department might be carried on at all, an Ohio neighbor and confidant of the President, quite unknown to the country at large, was installed under him.

Such is the present condition of the Department of State, the most important department of the Government, and the head of which, in the case of the death of the President or Vice-President, stands next in succession to the Presidency. That is a remote chance, though it is one which it was the duty of the President to think of, but it is a minor matter compared with the confusion and embarrassments now being caused in the ordinary conduct of the Government itself. It comes at a time, too, when we have need of the very highest ability in our management of foreign affairs. Not only is the Administration undertaking to annex some islands in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, two thousand miles away, in complete departure from the traditional policy of the Government, settled by the practice of a hundred years; it is in the midst of a most irritating discussion with Spain as to Cuba, which has already involved us in the gravest responsibilities, and will probably lead to still worse complications, by means of which a large faction hope to egg the country into war. Not content with this, it intends, as was announced on Sunday, to reopen the negotiations for an arbitration treaty with England, while it is at the same time endeavoring to get that country to come into some new convention on the subject of the seals, although no secret is made of the Administration's inclination to withdraw from the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and, by assuming a protectorate over a fortified canal route across the isthmus, demonstrate our utter indifference to any treaty obligations which conflict with our notions of our interest. While all this burden is thrown upon the State Department, owing to the peculiar views of foreign policy held by the President or his advisers, Congress is at work upon a tariff which, for the first time in the history of this country, puts us at odds with almost every European nation, and even with Japan, and brings from month to month protests or threats of retaliation from every foreign office in Europe. Such a situation obviously cannot last. Mr. Sherman must soon retire, or be deprived of all but a nominal connection with the State Department.

Some striking differences appear between the Hawaiian Treaty and message of four years ago and those of to-day. President Harrison's appeal was against the dangers of a monarchy which, he said, had become "effete," but which might be restored unless the United States stepped in and took the islands. Hence "prompt action upon this treaty is very desirable." But McKinley actually invites delay. Urging "due deliberation" upon the Senate is equivalent to saying, "For Heaven's sake, don't suppose I am in a hurry about this." But the most salient difference is in the treaty itself. Article iii. of the treaty of 1893 provided for the continuance of the existing Hawaiian government and laws until Congress should otherwise enact. Article iii. of the present year of grace turns the whole civil service of the islands over to the tender mercies of the spoilsmen. The two clauses in parallel columns will show how much more there is "in" the new treaty:

TREATY OF 1893.	TREATY OF 1897.
Until Congress shall otherwise provide, the existing government and laws of the Hawaiian Islands are hereby continued, subject to the paramount authority of the United States.	Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands, all the civil, judicial, and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons, and shall be exercised in such manner, as the President of the United States shall direct, *and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned.*

Is this vision of good things depended upon to placate the beet-sugar men?

Senator Davis, chairman of the committee on foreign affairs, frankly admits that the sending in of the Hawaiian treaty at this time was only a political juggle. He cheerfully announces that no effort to ratify the treaty will be made at this session. It is a good enough treaty until after the tariff is passed; what it will be then, no one can tell. Thus the evidence is complete that the Administration is simply playing fast and loose with the Hawaiians in order to crowd through its tariff at all hazards. For the same end, it is simultaneously announced that all attempts to get currency reform going have been abandoned for this session. On the strength of assurances to that effect the silver Senators are letting the tariff slip along. Hawaii, currency reform, economy—all these are thrown overboard to save the tariff, and that tariff one sure to result in a deficit!

The protest of the Japanese Minister at Washington against the Hawaiian treaty is based on the ground of its inhumanity. And the worst of it is that the treaty *is* inhuman. The President and his advisers have brought this Christian nation into the humiliating position of being exposed to just rebuke by a heathen country for proposing to trample on fundamental human rights. The case as set forth in the Japanese protest is clear and unanswerable. Under the treaty between Japan and Hawaii negotiated in 1871, Japanese citizens were guaranteed in the islands all the rights and privileges of other foreigners. Since that date they have freely gone to Hawaii, where they now number about 25,000 souls. Many of them have acquired property; have their wives and children with them; have become Hawaiian citizens by naturalization. But all their rights and privileges are to be remorselessly wiped out by Mr. McKinley's treaty. These heathen have no rights that a Christian is bound to respect. Their citizenship is to be extinguished by a stroke of the pen. Their right to migrate to this country is absolutely denied; their right to property, and to protection of the laws, is at least seriously imperilled. The best prospect before them is forced flight from the islands, with loss of legal rights and property and great incidental suffering. The situation of the Chinese in Hawaii will be even more pitiful when our inhuman treaty is ratified. There are 25,000 of them in the islands, and the treaty will practically deprive them instantly of liberty and the pursuit of happiness if not of life. They are there, and have been welcomed there as contract laborers; but no Chinese can labor under contract for one day under the laws of this

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Christian people. Chinese in United States territory may freely move from place to place; but when Hawaii becomes United States territory, the Chinese cannot budge; a special provision of the treaty prevents it. They cannot work on the islands, they cannot come to the United States to find work. What can they do? This is what the Chinese Minister at Washington is asking the President.

We are more than pleased to hear that the American Ministers to France, Germany, Belgium, and Austria have been instructed to take a very high tone with the governments of those countries respecting the obstacles they put in the way of American agricultural exports. There is something peculiarly revolting to President McKinley about preventing foreign imports into a country, especially the necessaries of life; and he is going to see that the Europeans quit it, or know the reason why. Of course, we ourselves lay duties on agricultural imports, but that is only to fool the farmer; the Europeans actually protect their farmers without fooling them and keep our food exports out. We should not object to humbug duties, like our own; it is only the effective ones that are so offensive. It is certainly high time that a resolute protest was made against this foreign policy of laying taxes and getting up administrative laws and hygienic regulations so as to shut out imports; and Mr. McKinley is the ideal man to make it. One of his alliterative maxims levelled at the crowned heads would swiftly bring them to terms.

The Republican Senators caucused for two days in order to find some way to circumvent the laws of trade, and then solemnly gave up the job. They gave out their decision in the form of a great economic discovery—namely, that "if a tariff was to be reduced, importations would be held back; and if a tariff was to be raised, importations would be rushed in." Nobody but United States Senators would have needed to wrestle with the subject two days to reach that conclusion, but we must say that, for them, the time was well spent. In fact, it would be well for the country if they would caucus oftener and discuss the elementary principles of trade and finance. If the seal of caucus approval could be set on Gresham's law, for instance; if Senators would gravely vote that we could not make foreigners pay our taxes; if they would agree that a prohibitory duty cannot be at the same time a revenue duty; even if they would formally resolve that an expenditure of $525,000,000 on a revenue of $475,000,000 means a deficit, it would seem a great advance. But we are thankful and encouraged that eminent Republicans at last admit that there are such things as laws of trade. Dingley thought not.

Although nobody in the Senate has yet succeeded in proposing a popular method of securing revenue enough to meet the expenditures of the Government, and every new scheme that is brought forward for preventing a deficit meets bitter opposition, new appropriations are recommended as cheerfully as though there were a large surplus in the Treasury. The pension committee of the Senate has reported favorably a bill granting a pension of $8 a month to surviving soldiers and the widows of soldiers who participated in the various Indian wars. The committee admit that this measure would increase the expenditures on pension account by at least $7,500,000 a year, and experience indicates that the actual cost would be much larger. But the fact that there is not money enough in sight for the Government to pay its present pension bills without running in debt does not restrain the party in power from swelling the deficit by millions a year more, and this new pension bill will doubtless go through Congress as soon as it can be brought to a vote.

The million and a half in gold which went out by Tuesday's steamers raises the total shipments thus far in the year to something like $21,000,000. This total does not, however, run beyond the average for the period, even in years before the silver-purchase act. The spring gold exports, it will be remembered, caused acute alarm only after the currency experiments of 1890. It was in 1891 that the Treasury officers themselves began to express misgiving. Finally, in July, 1892, with gold going continuously out on export, and with practically none coming into the banks either from Washington or from the interior, the city institutions, threatened with utter exhaustion of their stock of specie, ceased to use gold for mutual settlements at the clearing-house, and thus drove sterling bankers back on the Treasury reserve. At the same time, the movement of new gold, alike into the Treasury and into the banks, was almost suspended; the gold was actually hoarded. The results we know; but those very results add interest to this season's wholly different phenomena. The Treasury reserve has, to be sure, been used again as a source for export gold; but while some $15,000,000 has been thus obtained, $2,560,000 has been provided by the banks from their own supplies. Meantime, the deposit of new gold with the Treasury in exchange for notes has again become heavy, and the net result of both these succors is very striking. Since April 1, the total gold exports from New York have footed up $18,480,000; yet the net decrease in the Treasury gold reserve during the period has been only $7,294,000. This is a very different situation from that which has prevailed during the spring gold export movements of the past five years.

Special interest is added to these incidents by the mint estimates of the country's gold production during 1896. Mr. Preston's preliminary report, issued early last week, figured last year's aggregate output of the United States mines at $53,088,000, as compared with $46,610,000 in 1895 and $39,500,000 in 1894. This increase, in his judgment, bids fair to be continuous, and sixty millions is not therefore an excessive estimate for 1897. Now, the striking fact in connection with these figures is, that in only four out of the last twenty-five years have net gold exports from this country exceeded even the new production during 1896. Three of those years of exceptionally heavy shipments followed the treasury-note inflation under the act of 1890; yet the country's total net loss of gold through export in the five years following 1890 has been less by nearly $40,000,000 than the ascertained production of the country's mines in the same period.

The question of a beer tax is before the Legislature of Pennsylvania, and it is as difficult a matter to handle at Harrisburg as at Washington. The first proposition was to put a tax of one cent per gallon upon all beer brewed outside of the State and sold within its borders, and the Senate actually passed this bill to a third reading, although it was in the plainest possible violation of the federal Constitution and of repeated decisions by the Supreme Court that a State cannot tax articles brought into it from another State any more than it taxes similar articles produced within the State. Even the Harrisburg lawmakers finally saw the folly of pushing this scheme, and on Wednesday week a substitute was proposed to make the tax apply to all beer, wherever brewed. It is estimated that the proposed tax on Pennsylvania beer alone would bring in over $1,000,000 a year, and an advocate of the project urged with force that it would look bad to "refuse to pass this bill and at the same tax dead men's estates and the property of widows and orphans, and reduce the public-school appropriations." But a Harrisburg correspondent reports that "the power of the beer interests is so great that it is difficult to predict the fate of this or any other measure proposing to tax malt liquors." The final decision will, of course, be made by the "Government" of the State, who is still detained in Washington by his Senatorial duties.

The meeting of the New Jersey Democratic State committee last week shows

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that there, as elsewhere, the Bryanites have firm hold of the organization, and do not propose to relax their grasp. The more independent sentiment of this region prevents the managers from going to the extreme position taken by the similar committee in Kentucky recently, which refused a place in the caucus to anybody who would not accept the Chicago platform of 1896 and agree to abide by it. But the New Jersey leaders do not propose to let the Gold Democrats have any *prominence* in the organization. They are ready to accept the coöperation of such men at the polls, but only on the understanding that they will "vote and not talk"; they must swallow Bryanism, or they will not be considered Democrats. The men who have always believed in the traditional doctrines of Democracy regarding sound money now know what to expect in New Jersey. They should immediately recognize the fact that there is no question as to the course which self-respect will require them ultimately to adopt. They must maintain an organization based on the principles of the National Democratic platform, as men of the same mind in Kentucky have already decided to do.

Those distressed Americans in Cuba have been pretty thoroughly forgotten by the dear public since the dear public found out that there weren't any. But the consuls are doing their best to distribute the money which Congress voted in the dark. A newspaper of Sagua, the *Productor*, says that the American Consul there, not being able to find any needy countrymen, is giving away his quota to Chinamen and negroes. And the *Region* of Matanzas says that the same thing is going on in its neighborhood. It gives the names of some persons who were suffering Cuban *pacificos*, driven from their homes by the brutal Spaniards, until they heard of this fund for distressed Americans, whereupon they became distressed Americans on the spot. Really, the Organized Charities ought to send some of their circulars to President McKinley and Congress, warning them against being taken in by impostors.

It seems more and more doubtful if it is the "manifest destiny" of the United States to absorb Canada. The Sandwich Islands and the West Indies may be added to our territory, but the complacent idea of such statesmen as Mr. Depew, that Canada will some time drop into our lap "like a ripe pear," finds little support in present realities. The Dominion has taken an important step towards closer union with the mother country in reducing the duties on English goods; and this step is in a direction which will increase the effectiveness of the costly improvements in the means of transportation which are already in existence. Under the Tory governments, which have with one exception—more apparent than real—prevailed in Canada for thirty years, enormous sums have been spent on canals and railroads, the purpose of which was to enable the Canadians to export their products cheaply. At the same time the ridiculous policy of protection has hindered the sale of these products, and gone far to neutralize the increased facilities for transportation. Mr. Laurier's Government, it seems, proposes not only to diminish tariff hindrances, but also to establish a new line of twenty-knot mail steamers to ply weekly between England and some Canadian port. Connection by cable with the Australasian colonies will probably not be long delayed, and Canada may become the great thoroughfare of commerce between these colonies and England.

It is interesting to note, in connection with the Queen's Jubilee, that, in 1837, the year in which her reign began, the French Canadians were in armed rebellion against English rule. To-day Mr. Laurier, a Frenchman and a Catholic, not only is Premier of Canada, but is in England to present the congratulations of that country and the assurance of its loyalty to the British Queen. Such is the natural and legitimate result of the policy of granting political enfranchisement to the members of a race hostile by political and religious tradition to the English-speaking people of Canada. As is maintained by the correspondent of the London *Times*, it would be difficult to find a Canadian who would seriously urge Mr. Laurier's religion or his nationality as an argument against his holding his present office. The fact that Mr. Laurier has distinguished himself by his devotion to the principles of free trade, and has at last succeeded in committing the Dominion to those principles, gives additional emphasis to the changes that have taken place in the relations of the inhabitants of Upper and Lower Canada to each other and to the empire. Domestic unity and concord have been substantially attained, and imperial unity is in a fair way to become more and more complete. But we can hardly agree with the correspondent of the *Times* that the imagination of France will be touched by these circumstances. It may be true that "a genius essentially French once more directs the destiny of the Canada whose history is associated with the splendid names of Champlain, Frontenac, Laval, and Montcalm"; but that will hardly appear to Frenchmen, considering the character of this destiny, to be an occasion for indulging in sentiments of unmixed exultation.

The bimetallists are heroic optimists, but some of their whistling to keep their courage up comes very near outright misrepresentation. Thus, Lord Aldenham's letter to the English Bimetallic League, two weeks ago, boldly prophesied that "this year of Jubilee" was going to crown the hopes of the international bimetallists. Now prophecy is always irrefutable unless the prophet gives his reasons. If he does give them and you can refute them, it makes both him and his prophecy look silly. Lord Aldenham was incautious enough to give reasons, and said that "the greatest evidence" of the speedy coming of the bimetallist millennium was to be seen in "the famous resolution of Parliament in March, 1896, and the promises of the Chancellor of the Exchequer." But the real bimetallic resolution of March, 1896, was one asserting "that the establishment of international bimetallism would be beneficial to the best interests of the country." On this, however, the bimetallists, though they had introduced it, did not dare challenge a vote. The resolution which was passed without opposition had not a word about bimetallism in it, but expressed the hope that the Government would "do all in its power to secure by international agreement a stable monetary par of exchange between gold and silver." As for the Chancellor's "promises," they consisted in asserting that "we all [*i. e.*, all the members of the Government, even the bimetallic Balfour] agree in this, that we should not be justified in proposing or accepting a departure from the gold standard of the United Kingdom."

There is at last a fair prospect of the passage of a bill for reforming the land transfer system of England, a system so inconceivably expensive and cumbrous as to have drawn from Sir F. Pollock the remark that no one would believe that landowners could endure it did they not actually do so. The difficulties of reconstructing a mass of ancient technicalities, in the face of the united opposition of the only class that understood them, have hitherto been insuperable, although attempts have been made repeatedly for nearly seventy years. Now, the Incorporation Law Society and the associated provincial societies have given their approbation or at least consent to a tentative measure. Compulsory registration of titles is to be tried as an experiment first in a single county, subject to the approval of the County Council, and the experiment is not to be repeated until sufficient time has elapsed to enable a rational judgment of the working of the measure to be formed. The measure also contains provisions that the title to land shall pass on the death of the owner to his personal representatives, and that purchasers, if certain conditions are complied with, shall obtain from estate owners titles paramount to all equitable interests.

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THE HAWAIIAN JOB.

However unpopular the Hawaiian Treaty may be with the press or the country, there is no doubt that it is greatly liked at Washington. This is not because of any advantages that annexation will bring to the United States, for no one has yet mentioned a single one. The President, in his message, speaks of it as a "fitting sequel" to a "chain of events"—"no new scheme," and "not a change," but "a consummation"; but he does not point out any gain to be derived from it by us. Nor does Mr. Sherman, in his report, which is wholly occupied with a vindication of annexation as contrasted with a reciprocity treaty, or what he calls a German "Zollverein," or a "feudal or colonial" establishment. The treaty provides for the assumption of the public debt of the islands to the extent of $4,000,000, but this is not a gain to us, for we have a debt already.

Not only do these documents not state any advantage which the country is to derive from the treaty, but they seem to avoid stating even those which have been supposed to exist. It is not pointed out, for instance, that Hawaii is a "key," or that, in the possession of an enemy, these islands would afford a basis of attack only 2,000 miles away, so that annexation would shut such an enemy out from an obvious "coal base," and throw him back for fuel 5,000 miles. This argument has always possessed great charm for Capt. Mahan and ourselves, but evidently it does not weigh with the President or Mr. Sherman.

It is humiliating to have to say it, but it is a fact that the chief public anxiety about the Hawaiian Treaty is to know what and whose job it represents. That it stands on its own merits nobody pretends. That any such scheme was even thought of a month ago, nobody alleges. Just consider the situation when the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent first published the fact that a treaty was soon to be signed. Hawaii expected nothing of the kind. The latest Honolulu annexationist papers were in the dumps, despairing of being able even to retain their reciprocity treaty. Not a particle of organized sentiment in favor of annexation was in sight in this country. McKinley and Sherman were both committed against it, as far as words can ever commit minds like theirs—which, we admit, is not far. The whole thing was quiescent and forgotten when, suddenly, in a week's time, a treaty was concocted, signed, and sent to the Senate.

Such effects defective come by cause, and what was the cause? "An urgent political necessity," telegraphs the Washington correspondent of the *Tribune*, who had before scouted the idea of any treaty being in immediate contemplation. The correspondent pretty plainly hints at the disgraceful facts. It was with great "reluctance" that the President sent the treaty to the Senate. In fact, the treaty was first sent to him by the Senate, in the same way that nominations are now sent. The President has become the clerk of the Senators. They had told him that the whole sugar schedule, and so the whole tariff, was imperilled by the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty and the complications growing out of it, and that an annexation treaty would ease matters mightily. Accordingly, on his principle of always striving to please all, the President ordered the treaty drawn. That this is the explanation of the haste is openly asserted by Senators Lindsay, White, and others.

The situation appears to have been this. The beet-sugar growers had the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty at their mercy in the Senate. They offered to compromise on a bounty, in addition to the high protection they get in the bill, but the Senate caucus decided that a bounty would not be popular, and therefore would be unfair. "Very well," said the beet-sugar Senators; "then there must be no more free sugar from Hawaii." On the other hand, the House wanted to continue the reciprocity treaty admitting sugar free; there was a prospect of a fight over the matter; besides, it was not seemly to repeal a treaty without notice and in that rough-and-ready fashion. Then the annexation treaty was thought of as a way out. The Hawaiians and their friends would thankfully drop the reciprocity treaty for the thing they were getting so much beyond their wildest hopes. And the beet-sugar men? Well, it may have been thought that they would be taken in by the dear old protectionist paradox that imports which would be damnable from a foreign country are beneficent when brought from the same country under our flag. Some of the beet-sugar Senators may be gulled in this way, but we think most of them are too hard-headed for that. They will have to be "squared" in some way, shown in dollars and cents that there is something in it for them "equally as good," or else they will oppose the treaty. Whether they have been reasoned with on these lines, whether they can be, is one of the mysteries of the situation.

Another mystery is whether the treaty is meant to be ratified. May it not be all a trick, solely intended to grease the wheels of the tariff? It is broadly hinted that ratification is not expected by the President at this session of Congress. The "urgent political necessity" simply required it to be sent to the Senate. One equally urgent may next winter require its withdrawal or its quiet strangling. What is clear is that there is nothing sincere or settled about this treaty. It is not really a treaty, it is a political trick; it is meant to help the finance committee and the tariff out of a tight place. This the President's warmest friends and defenders admit; it is a clever political move, that is all, so far. Mr. McKinley says that the failure of the treaty of 1893 was "not wholly without value," inasmuch as it showed that the republic of Hawaii could sustain itself. Might he not be equally philosophical if his own treaty failed? He would be quite capable of defending it on the ground that it was well to see if this country really wanted to annex Hawaii, and if it did not, certainly he did not.

But what neither Mr. McKinley nor any of his champions can defend is the manner in which this treaty was conceived. It is the prostitution of the nation's highest interests to serve a party exigency. Nothing like this has ever been known. We have had treaties made or proposed for curious reasons; but we have never had a violent departure from a settled national policy seriously urged as the best way of getting a contested tariff schedule through Congress. Talk about the "policy of infamy"! What is this new policy? It is at best a policy of insincerity, of alarming vacillation, of false pretence, of dragging the nation's honor recklessly into a wretched party intrigue. Is the trail of sugar hereafter to be over our foreign relations as well as upon our domestic legislation?

This latest surrender of Mr. McKinley to the Senate is the most startling feature of the situation. We could get on with Hawaii, but we cannot get on with an Executive who is content to register the will of scheming Senators. This is something that goes far beyond accepting senatorial dictation in appointments to office. If the Senate can demand an Hawaiian treaty to get out of a snarl in one schedule, why not a Cuban treaty to get out of another? This is simply to turn our conduct of foreign affairs topsy-turvy. It is to mix up our national life and destiny with Dutch standards and polariscope tests and beets.

A MENACE TO TRADE.

After more than a century of protective tariffs the people of the United States are asked to accept a measure which embodies the most extreme protective features ever formally proposed in a law. It is not strange to find a prevalence of doubt on the reasonableness of the demands for increased protection. If a century of favor still leaves the industries in an apparently hopeless and helpless condition of infancy, when will the need of a Government bounty cease? It is a well-recognized fact that the great industries, such as iron and steel, cotton and woollen, glass and leather, produce in most lines more than is sufficient for the needs of

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the home market; and that the real problem is how to obtain foreign outlets for the surplus, not how still further to secure or monopolize the home market. A tariff is almost useless in opening such outlets unless it favors manufacturers by free raw materials; and no tariff can widen the home market without sacrificing interests vastly greater than those to be assisted. On the ground of reason a high tariff at this juncture of industrial development is to be questioned closely and critically.

There would be some excuse for this new tariff if the countries of Europe had in recent years increased the duties in their general customs tariffs, or directly discriminated against products of the United States in such a way as to do injury to the trade in those articles. The course of tariff legislation abroad does not justify the belief that the tendency is markedly towards higher protective duties. If the amount of revenue obtained from the special imports by the leading commercial countries be compared with the value of those imports, the true burden of the tariff will be seen. Such a comparison shows that Germany enforced a tariff that took 6.3 cents on every dollar in value of merchandise imported in 1884, and 9.2 cents on the dollar imported in 1894. France received 7 cents in 1884, and 12.1 cents in 1894, on the special imports of the respective years. Italy, where the needs of Government are so extreme as to oblige it to look to every possible source of revenue, obtained 12.3 cents in 1884 and 18.9 cents in 1894. Even Spain, where protectionism is rampant, levied a toll of 11.7 cents in 1884 and 16.7 cents in 1894. In none of these instances can it be said that the theory of regulating foreign commerce by restrictive or prohibitory duties has been applied as far as it has been in the customs regulations of the United States, for our tariff law of 1884 imposed a toll of 28.44 cents on every dollar of merchandise imported, and in 1894 20.25 cents—a decrease due to the depressed conditions of trade and a very heavy import of free goods. Only Russia, a Power which appears to wish to break away from commercial connections with her neighbors, enjoys as high a tariff return as the United States obtains, for she received 12 cents on the dollar of import in 1884, and 20.8 cents on the dollar in 1893. But Russian policy is not one that commends itself for imitation by our people.

A further consideration in connection with the customs tariffs of Europe is the ability of each country to relieve its people of an excessive or a locally burdensome tax by commercial treaties. The high and at times prohibitive duties of the general tariff are lightened, or even set aside, by treaty or convention, and in this way the true weight of the system is only generally shown by the comparison just made. That such a treaty is based upon mutual concessions does not destroy the force of this statement, for no concession of importance would be made unless some really compensating trading privilege were obtained. This treaty system, with its vital principle of equality in concession omitted, was introduced in our tariff of 1890; but little positive advantage to our commerce can be traced to that experiment, and it was sufficient to prove the inexpediency of further attempts in that line.

In no one of the European tariffs are there to be found duties framed against and immediately intended to restrict imports from the United States. Decrees have been issued against hog products or meats from the United States, a form of protection masquerading as sanitary legislation. General duties on agricultural imports have been levied at the demand of the agrarian parties in France and Germany, but these duties have applied with equal force to wheat, corn, or cattle, from every exporting country, and could not be interpreted as a special attack upon products coming from the United States. In their results these restrictions have not permanently affected exports from the United States, and the principal end for which they were framed has not been attained.

A different spirit has actuated recent tariff legislation in this country. Prohibitive duties have been framed for manufactured articles coming from a single country—like the rates on pearl buttons, which struck down an important trade with Austria-Hungary. Protective duties on agricultural products are levied with the avowed object of reducing our imports from Canada. The cheap woollen and cotton manufactures of Germany are held up as the reason for very high rates on those imports; and Japan complains, in company with France, that her low-priced silks will be excluded from the markets of the United States by the proposed rates in the pending bills. At the demand of California excessive rates are laid on fruits and borax, which will materially affect the imports of these articles from Italy, and, indeed, will greatly increase the cost of the cheap but wholesome fruits of the Mediterranean to the poor in our Eastern cities. An increased rate of duty on lead ore strikes at an important article coming in from Mexico and Canada, and bringing in millions of dollars in raw material to be used in the mining and smelting operations of the West. The proposed duty on hides is the last means of encouraging trade with the River Plate republics, while the duties on wools are a further invitation to those countries to feel aggrieved.

All this points to but one outcome. Each of these duties enumerated contains an implied threat, and it will not be strange if it be recognized as such by the Power whose trade is affected. Threats may be met by measures of retaliation, and the export trade of the United States is in no position to meet such rebuffs, if they shall come. It is increasing in degree, and, since the law of 1894, it has been gaining in strength and solidity through the growing export of manufactures. To invite reprisals from our best customers is not a defensible method of maintaining the present volume of trade, or of still further developing its amount and differentiating its kind. On this ground alone the proposed tariff law stands condemned.

LOCATING ALTRURIA.

There have been many descriptions of ideal commonwealths, some of which have been so attractive as to excite strong yearnings among mortals weary of toil and care and strife. But unfortunately these ideal communities have all suffered under a common difficulty. They have been invariably located in inaccessible situations or under unreal conditions. Plato did not fit his republic into any known geographical limits. Augustine described a heavenly kingdom which in our materialistic age arouses only scorn among altruists. Harrington wrote of an Oceana; our own Donnelly has depicted a new Atlantis. Even the practical and prosaic Bellamy, whose arrangements for unctuous comfort and sensual gratification seemed almost sufficient to transform a heavenly paradise into an earthly one, was so tantalizing as to postpone the realization of his scheme to a period when no one now living will be alive. Among all these prophets there seems to have been a perverse unanimity in planting their ideal commonwealths where no one could get at them for the purposes of actual observation and inspection, to say nothing of habitation.

Mr. Eugene Debs, with characteristic sagacity and courage, has resolved to put an end to this reproach. Weary of his fruitless and disheartening attempts to defy the State and national authorities and to overcome the settled convictions of the majority of his fellow-citizens, he has boldly determined to locate Altruria, and to call on all sincere altruists to join him in actual settlement of this heretofore undiscovered country. He counts on a million of these as contributors; but it is essential to his plan that they should become genuine colonists. The boundless West, he tells us, is sparsely settled and has fabulous resources. Land can be procured, and the unemployed set to work on coöperative principles, thus recognizing the brotherhood of man as a fact in nature, which "in obedience to natural law will form the basis of the new life, from which, it is confidently believed, there will spring a higher, nobler civilization."

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The "boundless West," however, would be open to the objection of indefinite boundaries to which we have just referred, and several regions have been considered with a view to more definite location. Utah has its advantages; but the associations are not agreeable. It was formerly selected by a peculiar people that wished to sever itself from a sordid and sceptical world, but the world refused to tolerate its peculiarities, and finally compelled it to submit to conventional rules of morality. California has been thought of; but here a most painful and unexpected difficulty has been encountered. The San Francisco *Examiner* has protested against establishing Altruria in California. Mr. Debs had, perhaps incautiously, stated the altruistic programme in very definite terms. He observed of his movement:

"After we have colonized the chosen State, we should, at the end of a year or two, be able to elect a Legislature and State officers, call a State constitutional convention, and change the organic law of the State in such a manner as to permit the use of the State funds and give us authority in the trial of the theory of State coöperation."

The *Examiner*, instead of rejoicing over this prospect, took a decidedly plutocratic view of it. It had heartily supported Mr. Debs in his attempts to revolutionize our railway system, but it objects to revolutionizing California. That State, it complains, has billions of dollars' worth of accumulated property, and "it would be a very serious matter to try to change the whole structure of society in a State like this." It accordingly suggests that Nevada, Wyoming, or Idaho should be chosen for Mr. Debs's field of experiment.

On the whole, Mr. Debs seems to have acted wisely in avoiding an evil and adulterous generation and turning his attention to a community where a majority of the inhabitants are already favorable to his theories. The State of Washington, he has decided, offers the best advantages, and in that State, therefore, Altruria is at last definitely and, we trust, permanently located. The American Railway Union, as we understand Mr. Debs, is composed entirely of altruists and is to be merged in the movement. Ardent hearts, active tongues, and minds of various degree support it. Mr. Henry D. Lloyd commends it. The Rev. Myron W. Reed will join it; Profs. Parsons of Boston and Johnson of Milwaukee; A. S. Edwards, editor of the *Coming Nation*, and prominent members of the Chicago Typographical Union No. 16, are committed in its favor. Mr. Howells has not been heard from; but it will be surprising if he does not hasten to escape from the false, mean world in which he is now imprisoned.

On the other hand, Mr. Edward Bellamy does not believe in these cries of Lo here or Lo there! The kingdom of heaven need not be located so far away as Washington. In fact, he does not believe that those who think the present order of things all wrong have any call to get together in one community. It seems to him "that they should remain at home and spread the truth among their friends and neighbors and convert them." It would be unfair to impute jealousy of Debs as a motive to Bellamy, but his position is certainly invidious. There is a certain amount of truth in the proverb, "Charity begins at home," but every one knows that this proverb is the great refuge of those who want to evade contributions to foreign missions, and, indeed, to benevolent undertakings in general. Mr. Bellamy may, perhaps, be excused for letting the Debs contribution-box pass, but he ought not to throw cold water on missionary impulses. What would this country have been but for the Puritan settlement of New England? How would Christianity itself have been diffused through the world if Paul had insisted on staying in Judea and converting only the Jews? Not in Mr. Bellamy's spirit has any great movement been carried to success.

Nor does Mr. Bellamy do himself justice in suggesting the sordid pecuniary calculations which are attributed to him by a New York *Herald* reporter. "How," he asks, "is Mr. Debs to move 100,000 men? Who is to support them while they are getting the settlement ready for the start towards the system which is desired?"

"The railroads are not in favor of changed conditions, and so no help can be expected of them in transporting the men. Full fares will have to be paid, and, unless a man can draw a check for five or six millions, he cannot very well send a hundred thousand men to Utah or Washington. The railroads are satisfied with the present conditions, or prefer them to conditions which would reduce their gains and power."

We venture to contradict Mr. Bellamy on these points. The railroads, we can assure him, are very much in favor of changed conditions. Mr. Debs and his Railway Union cost them in 1894 a much larger sum than would be required to transport the whole crowd to Washington, and if they could be permanently removed there, railroad officers would generally rejoice. They would not issue return tickets; but they would reduce the fare one way to a merely nominal figure.

We must look below the surface to discover the cause of these insidious attempts to prevent the success of the Debs colony. Nor do we need to look far, for Mr. Debs has unwittingly disclosed it. He has declared that the free-silver movement has spent its force, and that the "Social Democracy" will "cut into the free-silver ranks and leave that party practically powerless for the future. The principle of free silver is along the lines of Socialism. A large proportion of the vote for Bryan in the last campaign came from Socialists. They voted for him because he came nearest to representing their views." It is easy to see that such statements, the truth of which is undeniable, are extremely disadvantageous to the cause of bimetallism. If the American people come to understand what Mr. Debs is now explaining to them, the future of free silver will look dark. We may be prepared, therefore, to find the owners of silver mines doing whatever is in their power to discredit Debs and to discourage his movement. We do not underrate their abilities or their malignity; but we shall try to secure fair play for those whom they attack, and we shall certainly do what we can to establish the proposition that free silver coinage and communism are very much the same thing.

THE EXPANSION OF ENGLAND.

Nothing in the political and social history of the nineteenth century has attracted more attention than the continually increasing prosperity and growth of England during the long reign of Queen Victoria. The triumphs of a race which from small beginnings has spread over the earth, planting its language and institutions in new continents, and bringing peace and orderly government to the oldest civilizations in the world, have seemed to be summed up in the glories of the Victorian period, marked by common consent, even before it is finished, as a page of history beside which some of the greatest epochs of the past begin to seem dull.

This is evidently not due merely to the effect on the imagination of a sudden expansion of political power and influence. All must feel that there is something different in kind between the achievements of this epoch and any that have preceded it; something more full of meaning than can be found in the most memorable reigns of the past. Indeed, if we conjure up the shades of Victoria's greatest predecessors the world over, of Elizabeth, of Louis XIV., of Charles V., of the Great Charles, or of the Conqueror from whom she claims descent, we cannot but feel that even they would be filled with amazement could they behold an empire wider than any they could ever hope to found, vested in a Queen whose dominion has been less the fruit of force than of natural laws, and whose main hold upon her subjects is the fact that her flag and crown are to them the symbols of their freedom. If any of the great rulers of the past were told that the mighty political machinery of which she is the titular head had long since ceased to be what he would have recognized as regal, and had been voluntarily placed under the control of the nation governed by her, so that her monarchy itself had come to exist by democratic sufferance, he would not believe, for he would not be able to understand it.

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It is commonly said that what makes this period so different from any which has preceded it is the fact that the expansion of England has been accomplished by a people, and has not been the work of Government. No doubt the English Government has followed, not preceded, its merchants and traders and colonists; but this has been true in all periods. It was true in the time of the Stuarts, when the American colonies were planted and throve upon neglect; it was true in the time of George III., when the colonies on this continent were lost, and traders in the East laid the foundations of another empire in India; it was true even of the remote period when England itself was overrun by the invaders who took the place of the Romans. The Jutes and Angles and Saxons were communities of adventurers on their own account, not the agents of conquering governments.

But it seems to us that far too much has been made of this fact. Nothing is more certain than that although trade and commerce and adventure may go in advance of government, there can be no permanent security or civilization unless good government follows them, and Victoria's reign has been mainly marked, except in the case of Australia, by the ease and success with which the protection of the Government has been extended over vast foreign, remote populations. By this means the Indian Empire has taken the place of a stock company, by this means a handful of English officers and civilians manage the whole government of Egypt.

It must not be overlooked that, in the same Victorian epoch, other countries, alien in religion, language, and customs, have also made mighty strides. The world has not stood still to watch Anglo-Saxon progress. The great Slav despotism spreads with an equally irresistible force to the confines of the earth; the Prussia of Frederick the Great has become the powerful German Empire of to-day. Some part, at least, of the force which has led to the wonderful expansion of England is common to all civilized nations of our period, and is driving on the whole human race at once towards goals which a century ago did not seem within human reach. When we pause, then, in the midst of this jubilation of a great people, and cast our glance back to the coronation of the young Queen, in 1837, and ask ourselves what is the secret of the change which has taken place, and which has transformed the little England of that day into the mighty empire of our own, we must not fall into the error of imagining that the advance has been that of England or the English race alone. Steam and electricity and railroads and telegraphs and telephones, and the wonderful multiplication of force which enables one man to do the work of a hundred, and has made what were once the luxuries of the rich the necessities and conveniences of the poor—these are great marvels, but they would probably have come had the English name never been heard of.

But, allowing for all this, something has happened in the last sixty years which severs England itself sharply and distinctly from the England of the past. In 1837 no one could have dreamed what was in store for the country. There was nothing in the reign of the two last Georges, nor in that of William IV., to make people particularly hopeful of the future. Prolonged wars had heaped up an enormous debt, and cost the country its most valuable foreign possessions; Canada and Ireland were both ready to revolt, Chartism was on the point of breaking out, and serious plots against monarchy were hatching all over the world; the reform of Parliament had been carried by almost revolutionary means, and a barbarous economical system seemed fastened upon the country in perpetuity. There was nothing in the situation of affairs to make any one confident of what the future was to bring forth.

The forces which changed the scene and have made the England of to-day have been generally treated as primarily those of freedom; but it is gradually becoming more and more clear that this is only a partial description of them. Freedom of the individual and freedom in government describes a great part of the change, but not the whole. It was freedom which abolished the corn laws, and struck the shackles off trade, and opened the door of political rights to all religions; it was freedom which appeased the demands of the Chartists, and it was freedom which changed the civil service from a hot-bed of privilege into a career open to all. Freedom made of suffrage a common right, and freedom made England in a time of oppression the asylum of the world, where tyrants and those who conspired against them learned for the first time that liberty meant equality of right. Freedom struck all privileges out of the laws, abolished the Irish Church, made Irish tenant-right secure, and brought the corrupt system of purchase in the army to an end. So it is that the expansion of England has come to mean the expansion of freedom. Whenever the English flag has floated over new territory, there has gone with it for the first time in the history of conquering Powers the equal right of man, of whatever nation, sect, or color, to use the energies and capacities given him by nature for his own good, free from interference or fear. Thus the polity which had been dreamed of and suffered for by the martyrs of liberty in the past has been actually introduced into the laws and customs of the most powerful race of our day, and England, in making the world free of her own privileges, has reaped the reward which had been denied to the selfishness of her predecessors. Where freedom has done so much, it is no wonder that there was a time when it came to be believed in as a sort of substitute for government, a panacea for evil itself.

But freedom is not all. There is something else in the progress of England in this century of which we are conscious, something that we do not perhaps always like to acknowledge, but which, notwithstanding our own millions and our own wealth, we may well envy her. There is no word for it in the dictionaries, it is not celebrated on tombstones or in biographies, but it is a quality without which no nation or individual has ever made any stable progress in the history of the world—perhaps we should say an assemblage of qualities which may be more easily traced in the effects they produce than named. In this century for the first time a great Power, comparable at its height only to that of Rome, has come upon the scene, which has known how, in every department of government, to select the best man for the work. The English judge, the English parliamentary leader and minister, the English consul, ambassador, civil servant, and military and naval officer, form a body of public men such as hardly any other country possesses, and certainly such as England never possessed before. Not merely is there no corruption among them, but they form a natural *classe dirigeante*—they are as nearly as may be the picked men of the country. In other words, the English public service draws to itself the character and intelligence of the whole country, and those who govern are in a larger measure than anywhere else in the world those who ought to govern.

Hence when the foreign critic is asked to single out the gift that the Victorian reign has made to its subjects, he inevitably comes to the commonplace conclusion that it is good government—good government proved, not merely by great revenues, or great territory, or teeming populations, but by the decrease of crime, by a lighter burden of taxation, by laws bearing equally upon rich and poor, by debt discharged, by the increase of the poor man's savings, by the decline in pauperism, by widespread thrift and enlightenment, by the fact that wherever the English flag goes it carries freedom, not merely for the Englishman, but for man.

Between the beneficent work done by England and that done by the United States, we should not think of drawing any comparison. That free ideas have in this century triumphed in England is greatly due to the example of the United States. It was the loss of her American colonies which awoke England to the sense of the dangers with which absolutism had surrounded her;

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it was the example of Washington, Franklin, and Hamilton that taught their former countrymen that a new era was opening. It was the welcome given by America to populations like that of Ireland under more equal laws and brighter skies which made it possible for the Old World to recover itself and take a new lease of a freer and better life; it was the successful struggle of the United States to maintain itself as a neutral and peaceful state that showed that war is not a necessity of states; it was the United States which first incorporated in the jurisprudence of the world the rule that one of a man's natural rights is that of choosing the government under which he will live. But for the violent separation of the United States and the foundation of the American republic, the date of England's conversion to liberal ideas must have been greatly retarded. At all events, it is impossible for us to consider the successes and glories of our branch of the race except in connection with those of which it forms a part. As Americans, we claim a share in the expansion of England.

Until comparatively modern times, the history of government was the history of cruelty, rapacity, corruption, and oppression. It was the enthusiasts of the last century who first conceived the idea that government might become at once the director and the beneficent servant of man, that, retaining its ancient powers, its control of the individual might be exercised only for his own and the common good. For this scheme of government it was necessary, not, as was supposed in the last century, that we should have a new heaven and a new earth, but that the notion of privilege should be replaced by that of a trust, and that improvement should be sought through the enlightened discharge of duty, and not through aggression. The example of England shows that hereafter this view of government is the only one for those who do not wish to fall back into the night of despotism and decay. Whenever England has followed this path, prosperity and power have attended her; whenever she has relapsed into the old system, as has been more than once the case in foreign affairs, the result has been disaster and humiliation. And so it will be for us. The destinies of the two countries are bound together by the strongest ties which nature can forge.

CRIME AND MISERY.

ITALY, May 31, 1897.

It is sad to realize that, after five and thirty years of national life, these two words sum up the history of Italy; yet such is the truth, and as yet there are very few signs of such radical reforms as alone could lead to the abatement of misery and the consequent diminution of crime. Yesterday Pietro Acciarito, who attempted the life of King Humbert on the 15th of April last, was condemned to the galleys for life—ten years of strict cell confinement, the remainder of hard labor in common, in some seagirt fortress, Nisida, Procida, or St. Stephen's, set apart for those criminals who, before the abolition of capital punishment, would have paid for their crimes with their lives. The sentence is strictly legal; the trial was conducted with extraordinary celerity for Italy, as the mad attempt was made on the 15th of April and the trial occupied only two short sittings.

It is an appalling fact that nothing, since the old Princes were dethroned, has been done to extirpate the deep-rooted habits and usages of crime, which can be traced back for ages in the same places and in the same families. Artema, where Acciarito was born, was called Montefortino up to 1870, when the inhabitants changed its name, hoping to cause its evil fame to be forgotten. As far back as 1557, Pope Paul IV., after summing up the crimes committed by the inhabitants of the little fortified town in the province of Velletri, issued an edict ordering the place to be razed to the ground; "the rebels, enemies of the Church, assassins of the papal soldiery, thieves, brigands, and murderers, to be put to the sword, their property sequestrated, all surrounding inhabitants forbidden to give them refuge and allowed to kill any that escape." But it must be presumed that the criminals were too cunning or too powerful, as, throughout the following centuries, the place was noted for the most atrocious crimes. Between 1852 and 1868, monster trials were the order of the day, and a sentence of 1872 runs, "In the region of Montefortino, in the province of Velletri, the classic land of crime, where vengeance is the barbarous delight of the inhabitants, crime has increased to a frightful extent during the last twenty years; whole families have been exterminated, and at midday incendiary fires are common. No one will bear witness against the accused, and the names of the same families occur in successive trials." Between 1870 and 1883 four monster trials were held without the condemnation of any of the arrested. The homicides in those years amounted to sixty-one per annum; other crimes—burglary, brigandage, blackmailing, extortion, pillage, rapine, etc.—to 211 cases; so that the crimes committed in this little town were respectively five, six, and seven times those of all Italy, taking the percentage of the other provinces. During one of the trials a prisoner said to the judge: "Why should I have invited N—— to assist me in a burglary? Does not your Excellency know that I, with Mastrangelo Francesco and my two brothers, am capable of strangling an entire village?" The extraordinary mixture of crime and superstition was never so clearly delineated. Pompilia Zambeccari had "vowed a golden chalice to the Virgin if she should succeed in poisoning her husband"!

In this town, which, in changing its name, has not changed its skin, Pietro Acciarito was born and bred—there, where neither the Government, nor the Church, nor private societies, nor individuals had attempted to purify the atmosphere by the removal of the most notorious criminals, or by educating the portion of the populace as yet unscathed. It seems as though neither the Government, nor the magistrates, nor the local police dared to tackle these phenomenal criminals. As a boy and youth, Pietro Acciarito seems to have borne an exceptionally good character. Schoolmasters and the masters under whom he worked say that he was diligent, docile, exact until three years ago, when he was brought to the point of death by typhus fever; he seems never to have been himself since. He took up with anarchical doctrines, and ceased to give satisfaction to his employers. His family is respectable; he had "kept company"-with a woman whom he intended to marry, but his affairs went badly, he sold his tools, and told his father that he meant to "do for some *pezzo grosso*," some high dignitary. The father, alarmed, reported his speech to the police, who were too much occupied to take notice of the denunciation. The King, who is really loved and esteemed in Italy, was driving in an open landau, the supposed protective representative of the police a long way behind, when Acciarito approached the carriage, and aimed his blow with a very deadly dagger. The King caught his hand, standing up, and the would-be assassin fell, rose, threw away his dagger, and was arrested by the carbineers, summoned by a boy cyclist, who was just behind the royal carriage. The King was quite cool throughout, observing that such things "are the perquisites of the trade." Acciarito maintained from the first that he had no accomplices, and that he had decided to kill the King so as to compel the nation to consider the misery of the people, "to set to work for their own safety to find a remedy for the gaunt misery flaunted by shameless luxury." Throughout his imprisonment he has never changed his tune, never affected madness, has denied all plot or accomplices. When his sentence was pronounced, he said: "It is my turn to-day; to-morrow the Bourgeois Government will have theirs. *Viva* the social revolution! *Viva* anarchy!"

The police, severely called to account by public opinion and by "their superiors" for their neglect of the father's warning, moved earth and hell to find out a plot and to prove that the anarchists are at their old tricks again. They arrested numbers of young men, against whom no shadow of an accusation was brought—this especially on the eve of the 1st of May, which date is still kept more or less as the workingman's festival. Among these was a young fellow named Frezza, well spoken of by his employers and fellow-workmen, married, and never arrested before, save as a "precautionary measure" on a former 1st of May, when he had been brutally used by one of the jailers, who was duly punished, and who treasured up his vengeance. On the 3d of May Frezza was found dead in his cell. A story of suicide was trumped up; then a verdict of death from heart disease was brought in. But his distracted wife made it known that his clothes, about which he was extremely particular, were torn to rags, that his eye was knocked out, while a fellow-prisoner who had been released a few hours before his death, bore witness that he had left Frezza in good spirits, and that he had sent a message to his wife asking a change of linen. Finally, the Government ordered a posthumous examination by three of the most celebrated surgeons of Rome, among them Senator Durant. Their unanimous verdict tells against the possibility of suicide. All Frezza's ribs were broken, the spine broken in two places, eight wounds on the head, one on the eye,

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and under the chin—wounds impossible for the man to have inflicted on himself, or to have been come by if the prisoner had, as was asserted, thrown himself from an upper balcony of the prison; a thing impossible in itself, as he was confined on the ground floor. Several women also detained there have declared that they heard cries of "Help, help! they are murdering me." Numerous arrests of the police have been made, and the preliminary investigation of the case is going on. The public indignation has been aroused to such a pitch that the Premier, who puts down all socialistic, republican, and political meetings with a high hand, was compelled to allow a popular demonstration of "commiseration" for the victim to take place, and more than 20,000 people, bearing wreaths in silent procession, went to Campo Verano, where Frezza's mangled remains have been interred, while a subscription for the widow has reached a fair sum for Italy.

The disorganized condition of authority in Italy may be seen by the latest statistics of crime furnished to the Senate during the April discussion of the new bill for regulating the iniquitous system of enforced domicile (*domicilio coatto*). Taking the years 1890-'4, among the crimes denounced for every 100,000 souls we find (1) "crimes committed by the populace against the security of the state," and (2) crimes committed by public officials; the second surpass the first by thirteen to one. Guardians of the law and law-breakers have become synonyms. When we come to judicial statistics, Senator Costa, now Minister of Grace and Justice, while expounding the awful state of the common prisons, where men and women arrested simply on suspicion, or on trial, or condemned, are huddled together day and night, he goes on to prove that three-fourths of the condemned criminals do not undergo their sentences in the way prescribed by law. At the close of 1895 there were 4,383 individuals in the various islands, sent there without judge or jury, at the good pleasure of the authorities; of these, 3,233 were released during 1896; 2,825 still remain there. The House is now debating in committee the new law passed by the Senate, but total abolition of the system is the only remedy. Police reform, prison reform, and a reform of the system of procedure must be carried out before Italy can hope to wash out the stain of holding the "primacy of crime in Europe." But these reforms alone will not suffice. Hunger is an evil counsellor, and, as Senator Villari affirmed, "the men who have governed Italy for thirty years have driven the people to the delirium of hunger." Now that the yawning abyss of African expenditure is closing up, it is possible that some funds may be found to free the masses from their intolerable burdens; say, from the tax on salt, which costs 40 centimes per kilo, on bread 7 lire per quintal, and from some of the octroi taxes on the common necessaries of life. Good work has been done in Sicily by the royal commissary during his one year's experiment, and the people there are so crushed, so thankful for small mercies, that the reform of the truck system, the transfer of some of the city taxes from the "have-nots" to the "haves"—from the poor man's donkey to the rich man's carriage and pair—have been gratefully accepted as an instalment. During the late elections the Socialists were nowhere, and their papers confess that the wind has been taken out of their sails.

And now, as I write, an agitation, with which the readers of the *Nation* are familiar, is recommencing. Again in Parliament Bovio has raised the cry, "What has become of the patrimony of the poor?" The annual *income* of charitable institutions amounts to one hundred and thirty-five millions; of these, eleven millions belong to the city of Naples alone, yet 35,000 poor, roofless, and in rags, starve in the streets, while a recent inquiry made by the provincial council proves that out of 856 infants sheltered in the foundling hospital of the Santissima Annunciata, only 3 survived in 1895. This sensational announcement has once more electrified the country; but the story is as old as the ill-famed hospital itself. The funds which ought to serve for putting the infants abandoned by their unfortunate mothers out to nurse, are swallowed up by the *fisco*, the *cult* expenses by careless and dishonest managers. The poor mites, therefore, are huddled together, two or three in a crib, with one wet-nurse, often diseased, for each two, three, or even four infants. Hence the inevitable mortality, which has ranged throughout centuries from 30 to 95 per cent. This time possibly the question will be thoroughly sifted, and it will be found that the solution lies in the fact that the law of 1889 (fully detailed in the *Nation* of February 20, 1890) has never been applied at all, that the reforms enjoined have not been carried out, that accounts have not been rendered, that the institutions have not been inspected. And what is true of the Foundling Hospital of Naples holds good for nearly all the other charitable institutions administered there by the State, the province, or the commune. Hope dies hard, and we still hope to report on the beginning of a new system for the alleviation of misery which alone can lead to the diminution of crime. J. W. M.

THE GERMAN EMPEROR AND THE PORTE.

PARIS, June 4, 1897.

It is certainly one of the most remarkable facts of our time to see, at the end of our nineteenth century, a revival of the Ottoman Empire, which threatens to be followed by a general revival of Islam. What have we not heard about the Sick Man, since the days of the Emperor Nicholas and of the Crimean war? We saw the European part of the Ottoman Empire tumbling to pieces, and the pieces detaching themselves one by one; the two principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia becoming the kingdom of Rumania; Bosnia and Herzegovina falling under the sway of Austria; Montenegro assuming a complete independence; Bulgaria rising to the dignity of a real state, and having but a nominal tie of vassalage to the Porte; Eastern Rumelia falling under the sphere of influence of Bulgaria. It seemed as if the tide of freedom were surrounding Turkey on all sides, and constantly advancing. The Treaty of Berlin added Thessaly to the kingdom of Greece.

It may be said that, a few months ago there was on the surface of the globe no government more despised than the Turkish Government. The horrible massacres of the Armenians in Asia Minor and in Constantinople seemed like the convulsions of a moribund. How is it that Turkey has now risen again to the position of a great Power, and that her diplomacy baffles the diplomacy of all the Powers of Europe? "Divide et impera." The Porte has always excelled in the art of profiting by the secret or open divisions of the European Christian Powers. It knew from the beginning that the so-called concert of the Powers, which hindered the independence of Crete and the annexation of this island to Greece, was not a harmonious concert, that, though it might prepare and send common notes and declarations, it followed very different aims under cover of the preservation of the peace of Europe and the localization of the war between Greece and Turkey.

We must look for the cause of the present situation to the conclusion of the Franco-Russian alliance. It is idle to dispute about the exact signification and character of this so-called alliance; the French are inclined to set too much value on it, the Russians are inclined to do the contrary and to minimize its importance; but the demonstrations which have taken place for several years, the assurances of friendship, and lately the visit of the Tsar to Paris, have created what we may call an atmosphere, in which both nations seem to be pleased to live, an atmosphere of mutual confidence, of increased security, of hopefulness. It has been repeated to satiety in the official speeches of our public men that France, after years of isolation, has been fortunate enough to find a friend, that she can now raise her head again, that she has, thanks to the generous sympathy of Russia, been able to resume in the European concert the place which is due to her. The leaders of German opinion were certainly alarmed from the first, and descried a real danger in the new relations between France and Russia. They first saw with concern Russia withdrawing herself by degrees, after the Treaty of Berlin, from what was long called the alliance of the three Emperors. The interchange of visits between the rulers of Germany, of Austria, of Russia, became less frequent, the visits less cordial. The late Tsar was a man of few words, very reticent, very prudent; it was in the last years of his reign that the Franco-Russian alliance was prepared and became a solid and important political factor. By degrees it became apparent to all that the political constellations of European politics were changed; on one side there still remained the Triple Alliance, but on the other side there was the Dual Alliance of Russia and France. This last alliance might become a formidable danger to Germany if there should be on the throne of Russia a bold and ambitious ruler, determined to use the united forces of his own empire and the renewed forces of France.

The force of the Dual Alliance was not undervalued in Germany. Threatened on both sides, she had to make new efforts to increase her armaments. She could not but discern a menace to the Triple Alliance. Austria, forgetting Sadowa, had entered into this alliance with the greatest sincerity, remembering only her historical mission in the valley of the Danube, and consoling herself for the loss of her preponderance in Germany with the increase of her security in Hungary and in her Slavic provinces. It was felt, however, in Germany that the popularity of the present Emperor, the dignity of his behavior under the most trying

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circumstances, had much to do with the present state of the Empire, that the perturbing elements, almost disarmed for the present, had not disarmed for ever; that the present truce would come to an end at the death of the Emperor, and that, in consequence, a cloud of uncertainty rested upon the future action of the Austrian Empire.

As for Italy, it was obvious that the alliance into which she had entered was becoming a heavy burden to her; the increase of her armaments had been too rapid for her financial resources. The Italians were asking themselves what part they were expected to play in the contingency of new European complications, what would be their gain. Their unity was an accomplished fact; they had been much dissatisfied by the conquest of Tunis by France, and looked with envy on the site of ancient Carthage; they saw France creating a vast port at Bizerte; they tried to take their part of the African spoils, but their campaign in Abyssinia proved a series of disasters, and, with their usual good sense, they effected a retreat and gave up a task which they found impossible to perform. The promoters of the Triple Alliance had represented France as ready to reëstablish the temporal power of the Papacy, and for a time, under the government of Marshal MacMahon, when there was some chance of a monarchical restoration in France, this argument had much weight with the Italian people; but the French Republic, having now twenty-seven years of existence, has shown no disposition to make a crusade for the temporal power; she has remained faithful to the Concordat, but has assumed a more and more anti-clerical character. For all these reasons, the bonds of the Triple Alliance have loosened in Italy to a certain extent; the desire of the nation is clearly that the alliance should never be put practically to the test, and should remain a dead letter.

For several years Germany has been looking for additional forces and virtual alliances against a combination of the Russian and French forces. It may be safely affirmed that the Congress of Berlin revealed to her the possibility of using Turkey against Russia in certain eventualities. Despised as was the Porte in the eyes of the civilized world, it had at all times been a factor in European politics. German officers were sent to Constantinople, and taught the Turks the art of modern war, the mode of rapid mobilization. For such mobilization railways were necessary; the Sultan, with the help of a committee of officers of the staff, drew the network of strategic lines in European Turkey, in Asia Minor; not a single line was conceded or approved before an inspection by these officers of the staff, and every provision was made for the rapid transport of troops to certain strategical centres. Some of the concessions were given to German companies.

The Ottoman Empire may be considered as an almost boundless recruiting ground; and all military authorities agree in saying that the Turkish soldier, for endurance, discipline, and courage, has no superior. The soldier of the Commander of the Faithful fights for an idea; he is always ready, he has made the sacrifice of his life, he only needs good officers. These good officers can now easily be found—strategists of the school of Moltke, who know how to make rapid concentrations; tacticians, also, who know how to manœuvre on the battle-field. Guns and arms can be found at Essen and in all the manufactories of Germany. Money, that sinew of war, as Napoleon said, can be sent from Berlin if it is not found in Paris and London; for money has no conscience, nor opinions, and only demands as high an interest as possible.

This is the moral of the late unfortunate war between Greece and Turkey; Germany, which kept at first in the background, waiting till the struggle began, came to the front as the supporter of Turkey and of the absolute integrity of the Ottoman Empire. It wished to assume the position of the best friend, the saviour of the Padishah. Is it likely that this policy was inspired only by respect for existing treaties? Has Germany not been paid already for her services? Has not some agreement, some military convention, been already signed, placing the Turkish army at the disposition of Germany, in the eventuality of an offensive movement of the Dual Alliance? Without breaking the bones of a single Pomeranian soldier, without spending a single mark, the German Emperor may be said to have, by unmerciful behavior towards Greece and his unconditional support of Abdul-Hamid, added an army of three or four hundred thousand men to his own army. He can now look more quietly round him; he has placed a rampart, and a formidable one, between his empire and Russia; he can defy the Dual Alliance, and, adding irony to his confidence, show an excess of courtesy not only at St. Petersburg but also in Paris.

You will now see European capital flowing to Constantinople, railways built in Asia and joining the Bosphorus to the Persian Gulf; the tide of material civilization flowing in new directions. But railways, telegraphs, telephones, and so on are only one—the material—side of civilization. Will anything ever change the spirit of Islam—the spirit which caused the massacres of the Armenians, so quickly forgotten, alas! by a materialized Europe?

Correspondence.

THE NEW PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I too have read with interest your editorial and the correspondence in the *Nation* relative to the present conditions and needs as to political parties. The query propounded by your correspondent "H. D. C." calls for an answer from the thinking public. I would suggest that a national convention in September is not that answer. We must build from the bottom. Local organization is what is first needed, and it is just such men as your correspondent of June 5 that must effect that organization.

Your correspondent's outline of a platform is substantially the platform adopted by the Indianapolis convention. I believe that on this platform, and under the name "National Democrats," the new party can best be organized. At present the immediate duty of the individual is, to do everything in his power to prepare his own locality to respond to the next call of the Democrats of Indianapolis to a national convention.

Respectfully yours,

Lloyd C. Whitman.

Ann Arbor, Mich., June 14, 1897.

Notes.

Mr. Wilfrid A. Stearns, 7½ Whitehall Street, Atlanta, Ga., has at last printed one hundred copies of a work designed to be published two years ago, under the title 'Penikese: A Reminiscence, by One of Its Pupils.' He offers it unbound, in sheets of about 100 pages, preferably to old teachers and pupils of Agassiz's famous seaside school, at three dollars a copy.

One hundred copies only of J. Herbert Slater's 'Sales Prices of 1896' have been secured for the American market by Francis P. Harper, 17 East Sixteenth Street. The sales recorded are of objects other than books—autographs, manuscripts, pictures, engravings, coins, enamels, pottery, porcelains, etc.

The A. D. F. Randolph Co. have nearly ready 'The Crime of Christendom: or, The Eastern Question down to the Present Crisis,' by D. S. Gregory, D.D.

Dodd, Mead & Co. announce a 'History of American Book Clubs;' the 'American Book-Prices Current,' for 1897; 'The New England Primer,' edited by Paul Leicester Ford; and a new and uniform edition of the works of Hamilton W. Mabie.

A series of standard novels, in duodecimo form, will be undertaken by George Routledge & Sons, under the title, "One Hundred Immortals."

Ginn & Co. publish directly 'Science of Discourse,' by Arnold Tompkins, Professor of Pedagogy in the University of Illinois.

Two more of the Cromwell volumes in the "Centenary Edition" of Carlyle have just appeared (Scribners). These beautiful books have portrait plates of Fairfax, Milton, Sandwich, Blake, Lesley, and Cromwell's mother, whose resemblance to her son is unmistakable. The same publishers add 'Nicholas Nickleby' in two volumes to Mr. Lang's "Gadshill Edition" of Dickens, on which we have already descanted. The illustrations are Phiz's.

After four years, there has still seemed to be a demand for Mr. W. J. Hardy's 'Book Plates,' of which we have accordingly a second edition (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners). There is at least one, and a charming, addition to the well-chosen examples of book-plates, namely, that of Mr. Everard Green, F.S.A., Rouge Dragon, and some corrections and expansions (as in the chapter on America) enhance the value of the letterpress, in which Mr. Hardy stimulates, not a passion for album-making, with its necessary despoilment of books, but a study and enjoyment of book-plates in their places. Mr. Hardy thinks Washington's plate, with its "Exitus acta probat," must have been engraved in England, and not later than 1760.

So long as there are people who feel peculiarly edified, as if they were getting real culture, when reading about art in the abstract, so long will the springs of ink, writer's and printer's, flow for them. For them is Mr. Frederick S. Robinson's 'The Connoisseur: Essays on the Romantic and Picturesque Associations of Art and Artists' (Longmans). Mr. Robinson has singularly little to say; his more pretentious flights are Vasari or Walpole warmed up for the thousandth time. But he writes pleasantly, with a certain touch of quaintness not offensive, and with a mild vein of anecdote.

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It is a nice book for a leisure moment when there is nothing better to do.

The Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co. of Kansas City bring out 'Shelby and His Men,' by John N. Edwards. Shelby was one of the original ultra-Southern men on the border of Missouri and Kansas, and, when the civil war broke out, he raised a cavalry company, beginning a military career which carried him to the rank of a brigadier in the Confederate service. His campaigning was west of the Mississippi, in Missouri, Kansas, and Arkansas, and much of it was of the half-guerilla kind which characterized the border struggle. Mr. Edwards's narrative is an enthusiastic laudation of his hero and the men he led, given in great detail and in exuberant rhetoric. As a series of border adventures and combats, the book is an amusing and sometimes instructive type of its class. As history it can have no appreciable value. Always in the superlative, whether in praise or blame, there is no visible standard by which the accuracy of the tale can be tested or its judgments corrected.

'Jean d'Agrève,' by Viscount E. Melchior de Vogüé (Paris: Colin & Cie.), which first came out in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, is an effort to describe a great passion—something in modern life to rival the Héloïse and Francesca legends. It can scarcely be said that M. de Vogüé has succeeded. He has taken the utmost pains to select and prepare his characters, with the object of producing the desired impression of intensity on the reader. He has made the lady a very ideal sort of a being, and the hero a man with a streak of madness, and placed the pair in the midst of a most enchanting landscape. He analyzes most conscientiously every feeling and every emotion; he endeavors to enlist the profoundest sympathy for the misunderstood wife, married for her money, and the most respectful admiration for the splendid naval officer, whose brow is heavy with thought and who abandons society for the solitudes of the Golden Isles. He uses, in a word, every means at his disposal to move and impress, and yet the novel lacks precisely that power of absorbing interest which it is intended to possess; it even palls, it even bores. The language is superb, the descriptions of natural scenes are magnificent, but the beings who move about in these scenes are romanesque and sentimental rather than passionate. Nor are they markedly different from hundreds of others we are accustomed to meet in the average French novel. One could not help expecting something more vigorous from the introducer of the Russian novel into France.

Considering that Prof. Ziegler's 'Der Deutsche Student am Ende der 19. Jahrhunderts' has found interested readers on this side of the Atlantic, it seems worth while to mention as a sort of counterpart to the above, on the feminine side, two essays bearing the common title 'Die Erziehung der Weiblichen Jugend in den Höheren Berufsklassen vom 15. bis zum 20. Lebensjahre' (Erfurt: C. Villaret). The first essay is by Luise Hagen, the authoress; the second by Anna Beyer, a teacher, who have both been awarded prizes by the Königliche Akademie Gemeinnütziger Wissenschaften of Erfurt. The picture here presented of prevailing aims and customs is not flattering to the wisdom of German mothers and fathers of the higher classes, but there is hope that the woman movement—toward which both writers occupy independent though not hostile positions—will bring about a change for the better. There is much in these earnest appeals which, *mutatis mutandis*, applies to the bringing up of girls in this country as well as in Germany.

Illustrations are properly given precedence over text in the title of Jean Habel's 'Ansichten aus Südamerika: Schilderung einer Reise am La Plata in den Argentinischen Anden und an der Westküste' (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer). The seventy-six pages of text are little more than a bare itinerary, with faithful records of elevation and temperature. Herr Habel's travels belong to the South summer months (*i. e.*, November to March) of 1893-'94 and 1894-'95, and his first campaign among the Andean valleys was fully reported upon in 1896 in the *Zeitschrift* of the German and American Alpenverein; it is the later one that is here sketched. The traveller's main adventure was being taken as a Chilian spy (the boundary question was then in an acute stage), and shut up in an Argentine prison until his identity and peaceable errand could be established. His comparisons of Andean heights and cold with Alpine are often instructive. Thus, he points out that the projected railway tunnel in the Uspallata Pass will be some 1,700 metres higher than St. Gothard. But it is in the 70 plates after 165 photographs that the main interest of the volume lies. Counting out the familiar views of coast and town, there is left a body of mountain scenes which cannot have been before approached for variety and excellence in any publication of the kind. The folded plate xxxvi, offering a view of the ridge in the background of the Valle de las Bodegas, is extraordinarily successful in the impression it gives of sharply jutting rocks veined with snow. But many others of the illustrations are of almost equal merit, and together they make the 'Ansichten' a book of high value.

A wedding publication of interest may not come to the notice of many of our readers. For the "Nozze D'Ancona-Orvieto [son of Prof. Alessandro D'Ancona of Pisa, the famous Italian scholar], 8 Aprile, 1897," Prof. Pio Rajna has just published (Florence) 'Contrasto dell' Acqua e del Vino.' A favorite form of mediæval literature was the *débat*, which goes back to the classical *certamen* and *conflictus*. One of the subjects of debate was the relative superiority of wine and water, and poems on this theme are found in Latin, French, German, and Spanish. No Italian version was known previous to the present publication, which contains a poem in the Lombard dialect from a manuscript of the fifteenth century in the Ambrosian Library. The poem is undoubtedly much older, and the text is unfortunately incomplete and corrupt. It consists of one hundred and twelve verses of varying length, the exact metrical scheme being difficult to construct from the one rude version. As the editor says, the work, in spite of its defects, is interesting from its age and for the purposes of comparison with other mediæval versions.

The June number of the Publications of the American Statistical Association contains the address on the late Gen. Francis A. Walker delivered at the quarterly meeting of the association on April 18 by Col. Carroll D. Wright, together with a carefully prepared bibliography of Gen. Walker's writings. The number can be had, for fifty cents, by addressing the Secretary at No. 451 Boylston Street, Boston.

In the *University Studies* of the University of Nebraska for January last, it may not be too late to point out, Carson Hildreth makes a contribution to the Bacon-Shakspere controversy by way of a comparison of the "sentence proportions" of these two writers. That is, investigators have discovered that "authors use a constant average sentence-length, and a certain determinate number of predications per sentence, and that a given per cent. of their sentences will be single sentences." Applying some of these laborious tests to Bacon's Essays and 'New Atlantis' and to portions of fifteen of Shakspere's plays (66,524 words against 61,956), Mr. Hildreth concludes that Bacon's average sentence was nearly three times as long as Shakspere's (32.59 words to 12.39), his predictions to the sentence were twice as numerous (3.45 to 1.70), and his percentage of simple sentences about two-thirds smaller (14 to 39). Comparison between two such diverse kinds of composition would seem to have little significance, and Mr. Hildreth does not set too much store by his results.

It does not seem possible to get an unprejudiced account of Japanese operations in Formosa from the journals of either China or Japan. Allowing for the racial and linguistic difficulties among the mixed population of three millions, distrust of the new authority, and the natural unwillingness of mountain savages and agricultural semi-barbarians to change for the better, it is certain that fair progress is being made. Rev. William Campbell, author of 'Missionary Success in Formosa' and 'The [Dutch and Favorlang] Articles [of the Christian Faith] in Formosan,' already reviewed in these columns, who has spent twenty years among the people of the island, writes in hearty commendation of the patience, earnestness, and pertinacity of the Japanese attempts to civilize the people and govern them with justice. The island has become a hard place for thieves and those who thrive on the industry of others, but is daily becoming pleasanter for the law-abiding. One thing unknown under Chinese rule, is the hearty intercourse of Government officers with the missionaries and other intelligent workers for the public good. The development of postal system, schools, railways, telegraphs, and light-houses shows the determination of the Tokyo statesmen to make Formosa a vital part of the Japanese empire, while the effort to understand the people and wisely adapt the new laws as far as possible to good customs is sincere. The latest newspapers received show that permanent residents not specially exempted by treaty are obliged to become Japanese citizens or to leave the country. Registration is in progress, and the new regulations of commerce show a liberal spirit.

—A super-octogenarian writes us:

"In citing from the President's speech at the Philadelphia Museum the words, 'When the end [of enacting the tariff law] comes, we will have business confidence,' the *Nation* corrects the Presidential 'will' to 'shall.' Your correction is an *agere actum*, for a thousand schoolmasters had made haste to make it already—some glad of such a telling illustration of the rule in their grammars, and others fearing their pupils will be told by Republican parents that McKinley really is what a mediæval Ger-

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man Rex Romanus claimed to be, namely, *super grammaticam*. Some school-children also have doubtless got the start of their instructors, and have themselves shown up and laughed at the Presidential utterance as a shining case of catachresis. This grammatical lapsus has a special interest for students of linguistic history. In McKinley it is a natural cropping out of an hereditary taint. It is a common remark in English authorities that the use of *will* where propriety demands *shall* 'is preëminently a Scotch and Irish provincialism.' This dictum is in keeping with American experience. The blunder in question was unknown in early New England, which was not early overrun with Scotch and Irish. It first infected those States where those invaders were early numerous. The *Nation* has a wholesome fear to 'speak evil of dignities,' but is naturally unable to hold its peace regarding a Presidential peccadillo, mindful that the sin of a commander commands sin—that when a town clock goes wrong, it misleads many more than any private man's watch can mislead, and that when Calhoun took snuff, all South Carolina would sneeze. Therefore, although the name of McKinley honors this corruption, chastisement should not hide its head. The confounding of such familiar household words as *will* and *shall* would be less frequent if a mnemonic quatrain, common in old grammars, were not rare among those now in vogue.

> 'In the first person *shall* simply foretells,
> In *will* a threat or else a promise dwells;
> *Shall* in the second and the third does threat;
> *Will* simply there foretells the future feat.'

Shilly-shally speakers and writers will be fewer the more school-children hear of the Scot who, falling into the Thames, was suffered to perish because he cried, 'I *will* drown and nobody *shall* help me,' and the more people of all ages consider the difference between the sacred words: 'Ye will not [and ye shall not] come unto Me.' "

—Concerning the "senior dramatics" last week at Smith College we have the following appreciation:

" 'The Merchant of Venice,' coming after 'A Midsummer Night's Dream' and 'As You Like It' in the annual series of Shaksperian performances at this institution, may be thought the most ambitious of the three undertakings; in some respects certainly much the most difficult. In the case of the two leading characters, the comparison with professional acting was perforce acute, and in general there was perhaps less opportunity than heretofore for the display of feminine qualities of intelligence, grace, and refinement in which professional competition was not to be feared. The smoothness with which 'The Merchant of Venice' was rendered was noticeable, and left nothing to be desired; the stage-setting was entirely adequate; and it may be said once for all that there was no amateurishness in the individual acting or in the ensemble which marred the general effect to anything like the extent which we are accustomed to in Shaksperian representations by a 'star' company on the regular stage. The Venetian costume, too, was helpful in counterfeiting the manly sex, and *Shylock* was completely disguised. This impersonation would have seemed admirable anywhere, and was deservedly applauded, and in another way the part of *Launcelot Gobbo* gave general satisfaction, and was delightfully conceived and executed. *Portia* could hardly be thought a good third to these fellow-characters, particularly in the matter of delivery. Her defect, however, was not singular, and criticism most usefully expends itself on the imperfect training evinced too commonly throughout this play in respect of distinct enunciation, joined with cultivated accent and effective interpretation of a text so abounding in beautiful and melodious diction. But, all deductions made—and many minor points and parts might be justly praised—the players proved a not troubled medium for the poet's humor and pathos, and gave their audience more than ordinary enjoyment. They confirmed the wisdom of the Shaksperian adventure to which the college seems fully committed, and have made easier the task of their successors."

—The commencement of the Johns Hopkins University on June 14 was eventful, not only on account of its marking the university's majority, or twenty-one years of usefulness, but because the first class of its Medical School received their degrees as doctors of medicine, after four years of hard work. In presenting the fifteen graduates, Dr. William H. Welch, the dean of the school, commented on the unique position taken by the Johns Hopkins among medical schools in the United States, when, five years ago, it announced the requirements for admission to its first year's courses for the academic year 1893-'94; the preparation required represented the usual A.B. degree, a working knowledge of French and German, and a good foundation in chemistry and biology—or at least three years of college work. The courage and wisdom of this announcement of an American standard for medical training on a par with that exacted at European universities, have been endorsed by an increasing demand for this training among medical students in this country, 123 young men and women having been students in the medical department of Johns Hopkins during 1897. Not the least interesting fact of the day was the presence of a woman among this initial instalment of Johns Hopkins medicos, Miss Mary Secord Packard of New Jersey, who took her A.B. degree at Vassar College. If, as is said, the Board of Trustees of the University have been in any doubt as to public educational sentiment in Baltimore, their doubts should have been annihilated by the enthusiastic greeting extended to Miss Packard by audience and fellow-graduates and undergraduate students of the University. Dr. Packard and eleven male members of her class have been appointed resident internes at Johns Hopkins Hospital for the year 1897-'98.

—In 'College Training for Women' (Crowell & Co.) Miss Kate Holladay Claghorn has written an excellent book, and the only wonder is that so useful a compendium of good advice has not been put together before. The considerations that should influence a woman in choosing her college are discussed along with the pitfalls that may cause her college course to be less effective than it ought to be, and the functions that ought to be fulfilled by one who has had so great a boon bestowed upon her by fate after her college days are over. It is seldom that a book is written so exclusively for the purpose of urging various sorts of right conduct upon one group of individuals, and various right ways of regarding that group upon the public in general, which does not become wearisomely didactic and even a little priggish; but all such errors are successfully steered clear of here, and both sets of people addressed may be grateful for having their attention called to points of view which they may not have had sufficiently in mind before. The college graduate who goes in for a farther course of study and a career which involves research, receives, of course, her full share of consideration, but still more interesting is the picture which is drawn of what may be done gradually by the plain college graduate in relieving the deadly monotony of American life if she lives in the country, or in modifying the struggle for vulgar display of the over-rich if she lives in the city. In fact, now that the women college graduates are becoming an important factor in the world on account of their rapidly increasing numbers, there is no reason why they should not be as efficient an element in the production of that rich and full social life which is the crowning flower of civilization—as much the repository of the things that make for a high-minded, artistic, and ethical view of the interests of life as distinguished from the sordid and the unthinking—as are the college graduates who are men.

—The second publication of the Vanderbilt Southern History Society, organized three years ago at Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn., is worthily occupied with an account of Elihu Embree and his *Emancipator*. Embree was the son of a Quaker preacher whose home was near Jonesboro, Tenn., and the *Emancipator* was founded by him in April, 1820, solely in furtherance of the abolition of slavery, and was, as he rightly claimed, "the only paper of this kind in the United States," and the very first. It appears from the Rev. Dr. Hoss's interesting narrative, that Embree, by his own frank admission, had been a slaveholder before he professed religion; but he had also manumitted his slaves and dedicated his short life to the anti-slavery cause. He died with his paper in the course of eight months, and another Quaker, Benjamin Lundy, handed on the torch in his *Genius of Universal Emancipation*, at an interval of only six months—not of ten years, as Dr. Hoss inadvertently states. Dr. Hoss's extracts from the files of the *Emancipator* show its editor to have been a man of courage and a forcible writer, who could hardly have failed to precipitate on himself that violence which twenty years earlier (or at the time of the Virginia insurrection) would, he declared, certainly have been his portion. He was postmaster of the place where he published his paper, and this fact, under the existing law, enabled him to conduct correspondence without expense to either party; "the Government," said Embree, with an audacity that would have petrified the Southern statesman of 1835, "bearing the expense, as it righteously ought, of distributing these communications through the country, for the purpose of preparing the public mind for a practical reform from imposing unconditional slavery on a portion of its subjects." Noteworthy is Embree's testimony as to the effect of slavery in the border States in driving "thousands of first-rate citizens" to remove across the Ohio out of sight and sound of the horrors of slavery. "I have often regretted the loss of so much virtue from these slave States, which held too little before." The Quakers, of course, had a considerable share in this exodus.

—'Some Masters of Lithography,' by Atherton Curtis (Appletons), with its twenty-two photogravure reproductions of famous lithographs, its clear typography and thick paper, makes a handsome volume. Mr. Curtis is an enthusiast, and it is somewhat difficult to share his extreme admiration for Raffet and Gavarni, Harding and Calame, none of whom, able men though they were, seems to us quite so great and unapproachable an artist as he would have us think. Still, it is well that such books should be written from the point of view of the enthusiast for the special art and the particular artists treated of. The best thing in the book seems to us to be Bonington's wonderful rendering of the "Rue du Gros-

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Horloge" at Rouen, which is quite alone in its combination of sharp architectural detail with the suggestion of space and light. Apropos of the recent contention that Mr. Pennell's lithographs are not lithographs at all because drawn on paper and transferred to the stone, it is worth noting that, according to Mr. Curtis, transfer paper has always been used in lithography, and its invention, by Senefelder himself, antedated his discovery of that method of printing which really constitutes lithography. Lithographic stones do not make a convenient travelling sketch-book, and a sketch transferred to the stone from paper loses little or nothing of its quality. For sketches the use of transfer paper is general, but they can be sketches only; such work as Bonnington's not being possible on anything but the stone itself.

ITALIAN ARCHITECTURE OF THE RENAISSANCE.

The Architecture of the Renaissance in Italy: A General View for the Use of Students and Others. By William J. Anderson, Architect; Associate of the Royal Institute of British Architects; Director of Architecture and Lecturer at the Glasgow School of Art. With fifty-four collotype and other plates, and seventy-four smaller illustrations in the text. London: B. T. Batsford. 1896.

In his interesting preface, Mr. Anderson asserts that "English writers who treat of the Italian Renaissance architecture concern themselves chiefly with the later periods," and he cites Fergusson's 'History of Architecture' and Gwilt's 'Encyclopædia of Architecture' as illustrations of the truth of that assertion. It would, however, be the opinion of persons conversant with Continental as well as English writing upon the subject, that the early Renaissance had received much more attention than either the middle time of Vignola and Palladio, or the still later periods. A great number of splendid illustrated works, monographs and other, have been devoted to the fifteenth century, while, in comparison, almost nothing has been done for either the sixteenth century or the seventeenth century. The charm of the early Renaissance, both in its Florentine and in its Northern aspects, has been so great and all-pervading that the student of artistic proclivities and strong feeling for what is refined and noble in design stops with what Mr. Anderson calls the "culmination," that is to say, with the buildings of from 1505 to 1540, or thereabout. The exquisite character of the early sculpture draws many a student to the conclusion that all that was very good, all that was delightful and, humanly speaking, perfect, was of the early time. The close and intimate association of the fifteenth-century architecture with the painting of that day has its fascinating influence on many others. It may almost be said that only those who study architecture for its own sake, as architects do and as only a very few amateurs can be found to do, interest themselves greatly in the sixteenth-century work or in that of later times; and even among the architects, it is rather they who study the traditional, the authoritative, the academic, than they who study works of fine art for the sake of their stimulating effect upon the mind, who take strongly to the later styles.

Mr. Anderson, however, assuming that the later styles have received the most attention, in which he may be right if those two English writers alone are to be considered, announces that he has devoted four-fifths of his space "to the early and culminating periods." By this he means that the epoch extending from 1420 to 1550 occupies one hundred and twenty-three of his pages, and that only twenty-four pages are given to the period from 1550 to the eighteenth century. His choice seems to us, therefore, to agree with that of the majority of students and the vast majority of writers who have devoted themselves to the revived classic architecture of Italy. He gives fifty-three plates, either in collotype from ordinary photographs, or in line from drawings of his own or from prints in books. There is about an equal number of text illustrations in half-tone, except where they also are line-cuts. The line reproductions are all very good, the lettering large enough to be easily read, except the figures of the scales, which are, for some reason, always made too small in these reproductions. The pictorial illustrations are much less successful. It is really surprising that such inadequate reproductions of photographs should be permitted in so good a book. When the large number of illustrations is deducted from the number of pages of letter-press, namely, one hundred and thirty-seven of actual narrative, it will be seen that there is really very little text to consider. Indeed, the book is announced as containing the substance of five lectures.

What is most valuable in it is the elaborate system of comparison between buildings in many parts of Italy. The author has not only travelled and observed, but has noted down his observations in such intelligible and accessible form that he is able to bring them together in such grouping as he chooses. The result is that an architectural motive which interests Mr. Anderson and which he thinks especially notable, he is able to illustrate by the different treatment it has received in Siena, in Perugia, in Verona, and in Padua, and, perhaps, at a later period, in Rome. In this way the book is a most useful one, and it sets an example to historians of architecture which those gentlemen will find it hard to follow. It is so easy to proceed in Fergusson's way, noting down one building after another, and saying once for all what you have to say about it, and so hard to proceed in Anderson's way, providing an historical record of motives and instances of underlying principles and resulting architectural effects! It need hardly be said that Mr. Anderson's way is immensely more instructive as well as more difficult. It does not, indeed, furnish quite such an easy dictionary of reference, which is probably the aspect in which most persons regard Fergusson's book. You do not take up such a book as the present and find on one page or following pages all that there is to be said about a certain church or palace; that information is scattered over many pages, for it is not the individual building so much as its peculiarities and its architectural character that are under consideration. Such a book as this can, however, always be used as a book of reference, if only it has an adequate index, and the present index seems to be adequate, or nearly so. Still, this remains a treatise on the subject and not an illustrated cyclopædia of buildings.

We could wish that the author had insisted less strongly on his objection to the later, or post-Renaissance, architecture, namely, to Palladio and Vignola on the one hand and to the highly ornate style of the Genoa palaces, the Cathedral of the same city, the Pesaro Palace at Venice, and the like, on the other hand. The business of the critical historian is to point out what is good and what is not so good in each style, but hardly to insist too strongly upon the absolute inferiority of one style to another. The reader may be left to say which merit he prefers and which demerit seems to him the most grave. There are many things to be said against the ornate later Italian styles of the seventeenth century, and something to be said in their favor; it is only now and then that a monument comes to our notice so absolutely tasteless and vulgar that it can be dismissed by the historian with words of absolute disparagement.

What has been said above of the comparison established between building and building and between detail and detail in different parts of Italy, should be said also of some general statements to which this comparative treatment leads the writer, and which are always worthy of careful note. Thus, his remark, page 40, that "Venice is the only centre which presents important examples of all three periods," namely, the early Renaissance, generally identified with Florence and Milan; the later Renaissance, generally identified with Rome; and the Palladian epoch, centred at Vicenza. This is extremely interesting, and connected with it are the wise remarks about the overlapping of different schools or tendencies of art. Thus, it is shown that the early Renaissance in Florence ends about 1500, while in Venice the early Renaissance reaches until 1525; and that in this way disorder enters into any attempt to divide the history of architecture into successive periods. The reader would have been glad of a more complete recognition of this truth, and would have accepted readily more positive statements of the great difference between the development of the northern and the Florentine Renaissance.

In two important matters of general consideration our author's argument is to be observed with care as a generally accurate statement of a much argued question. Much to be liked is the protest he makes against the doctrine of Mr. Fergusson that the Renaissance in architecture is a wholly artificial or sophisticated style, and the doctrine of Ruskin that it is an expression of moral corruption and mental decline. There is, of course, that side to it all. To the student who has in mind the smooth, logical growth of style out of style throughout the long post-Roman period, which, in the north of Europe, went on almost uninterruptedly until the close of the fifteenth century, the sudden transition from pointed architecture to would-be classical architecture in Italy is, indeed, surprising, and, in a sense, shocking. Such a student would be less astonished by this phenomenon did he consider the artificial manner of the introduction into Italy of that same pointed architecture which in the north was so natural and inevitable an outgrowth of earlier styles. It might be argued with perfect consistency that for Italy the pointed architecture was

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the breach of continuity, and that Brunelleschi and Fra Giocondo were the real restorers of the true Italian tradition. The hint at this in Mr. Anderson's brief pages is all that could be asked. The same consideration comes up again on page 9, where the contrast between mediæval Italy and mediæval France and England is forcibly made. The much greater importance given in Italy to single artists of great repute and of exceptional position in their community, is a fact connected with all later artistic development, and one which it is well to have urged. Twelfth-century France was the home of organized decorative work, with such a sense of combination among designers as has never been seen elsewhere. Italy, at the same time, was already the home of many artists, whose names were known throughout the peninsula, and who worked as individuals, unswayed by the necessity of combining with their own the works of other and inferior men.

The Sultan and his Subjects. By Richard Davey. In two volumes; with frontispiece, plan, and map. E. P. Dutton & Co.

In one regard this book is eminently successful, namely, in giving a very vivid impression of the confusion of all things in Turkey. There races are mingled one with another; customs are manifold, languages legion, religions and sects multifarious, and often secret and mysterious. The laws and courts of law are as diverse and confusing as the nationalities, and by what code or in what court a man shall be judged it is often impossible to determine. All this strange confusion Mr. Davey contrives to reproduce in his book. Whether he deals with manners, morals, or the history of the country, all is confused. You ramble backward and forward; one moment you are in the seventeenth century, the next in the sixteenth, and the next in the nineteenth. The closest attention is required in order to follow the thread of the narrative. But not only this; Mr. Davey is extremely inaccurate and careless. On the second page of his first volume he refers to the caliphs Omar and Othman as the sons of Ali, and on the following page to Harun-al-Rashid as the grandson of El-Saffa, the founder of the Abasside dynasty. Somewhere, if our memory serves us aright, he locates Baghdad on the Euphrates; Edessa he places in Armenia proper, to the north of Diarbekir (ii. 156), while Jericho (i. 200) lies between Jaffa and Jerusalem. In one chapter we are told that the present Sultan, Abdul-Hamid, leaves his place of Yildiz only twice in a year, and in another we are informed that he leaves it every Friday to go to mosque. On the seventy-first page of volume i. occurs a transliteration of the muezzin call to prayer, with a translation which corresponds only in part. Cilicia appears systematically as Cilecia; *Keui*, the Turkish word for village, is written *Keni* almost if not quite as often as *Keui;* and the name of the late Canon Curtis, one of the best informed of Constantinopolitan antiquarians, is spelled Curtice.

These mistakes occur even in matters within the range of Mr. Davey's own immediate observation. Thus, the Dolma Baghtcheh palace in Constantinople is transported across the Bosphorus (i. 46), and Sir Henry Bulwer's notorious villa, or castle, on the little island of Plati in the Sea of Marmora, is placed on the much larger island of Proti (i. 324). Mr. Davey, in describing his trip around the walls of Constantinople, speaks of the picturesque appearance of the triple walls to the north of the Hebdomon, between the Hebdomon and the Golden Horn. He says (ii. 276): "The scene at this point is indescribably imposing. The triple row of walls, in most perfect preservation, towers up in all directions." But, as even his own map shows, there is a single wall at this point, the triple walls beginning to the southward of the Hebdomon, and extending from the Hebdomon to the Sea of Marmora. These are only a few chance specimens of the innumerable inaccuracies in which the book abounds.

The following statement with reference to the Armenian language may serve to illustrate Mr. Davey's general confusion of mind, resulting from partial and incorrect knowledge (ii. 196):

"It is otherwise with the Armenian language, which evidently belongs to that Hindoo-Germanic family whose mother-tongue is Sanscrit, 'the perfect language,' which reproduces in the highest degree of perfection certain linguistic peculiarities noticeable in some others, such as the Zend, Persian, Greek, and Latin, and the tongues still spoken in Germany and Slavonia. The bisyllabic peculiarity of the Sanscrit root distinguishes it, in a marked degree, from the two other chief languages of the human family, the Chinese and the Jewish."

Mr. Davey prefaces his first volume with four pages of a "list of the principal authorities consulted by the author in the writing of this work," thus suggesting an immense amount of study and research. He also refers frequently to ancient documents in the archives of the Bank of St. George at Genoa, and to other documents which have come into his possession, or which he has been allowed to use. Some of his sources ought to be extremely interesting, but he does not seem to know the value of evidence, or to be able to state correctly what he has read; and indeed one is often inclined to wonder whether he has actually read what he says he has. In the chapters dealing with Turkish life he introduces a great deal of hearsay evidence, and among others this story of "that admirable man, Helmi Pasha" (i., 279):

"He was a lad of twelve when, in 1825, a fearful massacre of Christians took place in his birthplace, the lovely island of Chio. The order had gone forth to slay adults only, and to spare the women and children. The boy was brought to Constantinople and sold as a slave to Sultan Mahmud II., who, perceiving his exceptional intelligence, sent him to Paris to be educated. On his return he was given an excellent post in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and in due time rose to be one of the most illustrious of Grand Viziers. One day an old beggar woman presented herself at the gates of the Sublime Porte, and begged an audience of his Highness, who, with true Oriental courtesy, ordered her to be admitted. She soon convinced him of the fact that he was her own son, torn from her in the terrible massacres which preceded the Greek War of Independence. The Grand Vizier ordered her to be conducted to his house, and installed in her rightful position as mother of the lord of the Hareem, which, according to Mohammedan etiquette, is even more august than that of Buyuk Hanum, or First Wife."

He goes on to inform us that the son of this Helmi is Hamdi Bey, who "has rendered incalculable service to art and archæology in his native city." Now the massacre of Chios took place, not in 1825, but in 1822. This massacre did not precede the Greek War of Independence, but was one of the incidents of the second year of that war. Hamdi Bey is the son of Edhem Pasha, not Helmi Pasha. Edhem Pasha's parents were slain in the massacre of Chios, and he was sold as a slave in Constantinople, but not to Sultan Mahmud II. The rest of the story is, we fancy, apocryphal. The whole is an example of the unreliability of Mr. Davey's narratives.

From the specimens of Mr. Davey's work already given it may be conjectured that his treatment of political history and current events is not likely to have very much value. Discussing the Greek War for Independence, in the chapter on the Greeks, his sympathies seem to be entirely with them, but in the chapter headed "A Brief History of Reform in Turkey," the destruction of the Egyptian fleet at Navarino is condemned as an outrage, and we are told that "Canning's one cry was that we should stand the friend in all sincerity and firmness of the Sultan. The Foreign Office betrayed him, and from that hour to this we have never fully regained our influence in the East" (i., 180); a most singular perversion of the facts. In the chapter on the Armenians (ii., 172), he says "that the slaughter of men, women, and children in the various parts of the Turkish empire inhabited by this unhappy race has amounted, within the last eighteen months, to something between 125,000 and 160,000. Sympathy surely is their right—even if more important national considerations must prevent an immediate and direct redress of the suffering inflicted—and a resolute endeavor and determination to leave no stone unturned which may effect a happy issue out of their afflictions"—which imperfect quotation from the Prayer Book would suggest that Mr. Davey has the same general and inaccurate knowledge of this as of everything else. It is interesting to know at least that the Armenians have a right to sympathy; but it would be still more interesting to hear what are the "more important national considerations" which prevent redress.

On page 207 of the same volume Mr. Davey says:

"By the Treaty of Berlin, signed in 1876, Great Britain took over, in a particular manner, the interests of the Armenian population of Turkey. It was promised protection, with an insistence on the due execution of the measures of reform called for by its condition. Buoyed by these assurances, the revolutionary party, at home and abroad, has grown gradually bolder, and the Armenian agitation, which five years ago menaced the peace of Turkey, now threatens the peace of Europe. Injudicious speeches and excited meetings in England have roused the fanaticism of the Mohammedan population of Turkey to fever pitch."

The inconsistency and impotence of this statement are sufficient to show our author's inability to deal with political questions. This passage also affords another instance of his varied misinformation. The Treaty of Berlin was signed, not in 1876, but in 1878.

Mr. Davey is certainly no friend to the Turk or his religion. He devotes one chapter to "The Failure of Islam," and has much to say everywhere about the ignorance, obstructiveness, barbarity, and corruption of the Turkish Government. But it is not worth while to quote more from such a work. Mr. Davey is an Englishman who spent, according to his own account, some six months in Constantinople, in the years 1893-94, and afterwards read up the subject with a view

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to writing a book; and his "excuse for these two bulky voulmes" is "that his researches on the spot, as well as in every attainable work of authority on a subject so wide, so deep, and so important, could not with justice be compressed into a smaller space" (viii). The style, which is journalistic and extravagant, is almost as bad as the matter. The publisher's work is well done, and the outward appearance of the book is admirable. The contents of the work are worse than valueless; the only really good thing in the two volumes being the chronological list (ii., 331-338), which is borrowed entirely without acknowledgment from Grosvenor's 'Constantinople.'

Corporation Financc. By Thomas L. Greene. nople.'

We have little hesitation in predicting the success of this book. It belongs to a class of which it is customary to say that they "supply a long-felt want," and concerning which, when they appear, every one expresses wonder that they had not appeared before. Considering the immense volume of corporate securities, it is evident that there must be some system in marketing them. There must be tests of solvency, of legality of issue, of policy of management; but if any one had asked for a manual containing these tests and explaining the manner in which they should be applied, he would, before this treatise appeared, have inquired in vain. There are financial publications in plenty. There are volumes of reports of railroads and other corporations. But the investor who attempts to decide for himself, with no other aid than these, incurs great danger. Unless he has special training, the figures are confusing and often misleading. In the end, he is obliged to resort to expert opinion, and he frequently finds that even this is untrustworthy.

Mr. Greene shows that there is such a thing as a science of corporation finance and of the valuation of corporate securities. He begins with the principle that modern business is done chiefly with borrowed money, and that it tends to fall more and more into the hands of corporations. The limit of borrowing he fixes at the minimum value of the property, and he does not hesitate to say that it is sound policy to borrow to this extent. But in the determination of the minimum value of the property of a corporation the greatest difficulties are experienced. It is comparatively easy to put an approximately accurate valuation on a piece of real estate in a city. But to estimate the value of the property of a manufacturing company or of a railroad, is an altogether different matter. This value depends entirely on the business transacted, and we can judge of this business only by examining the books, or the condensed summaries of the books which make up the reports. Everything, therefore, depends on the principles observed in drawing up these reports, and they are made the subject of an analysis which occupies one-third of Mr. Greene's space. Perhaps the most instructive portion of these chapters is that devoted to the examination of the affairs of a supposititious railroad. It is certainly a masterly piece of work.

The chapter on railway bonds contains a vast amount of practical wisdom, somewhat unsystematically set forth. That on subsidiary companies and their securities has, perhaps, more that is new to the ordinary reader, and is certainly calculated to cause great searchings of heart to investors in the obligations of these companies. Mr. Greene contends that, in the case of corporations whose stock and bonds are in the hands of many persons, publicity should be insisted on. The annual reports of all railroads should contain statements in detail of every item of income and expense, including statistics of trains. By comparing these reports from year to year, and by contrasting the reports of similar railroads, the truth can be ascertained; not without labor, but with reasonable accuracy. Mr. Greene's account of reorganizations and receiverships is an admirable statement of the circumstances that have resulted in a very remarkable development of law and of financiering. We recognize the force of his contention that the embarrassment of a great railroad may require the aid of a receiver, but the courts have gone so far as practically to give preference to unsecured claims over those which are supposed to be secured. The general creditor, with proper counsel, comes in ahead of the bondholder who has a first mortgage as collateral. There should certainly be provision made for putting the mortgagee in possession within a fixed period after default—provided he is willing to take possession. Doubtless many bondholders prefer to let things take their present course rather than be troubled with the management of a railroad.

Somewhat less technical than the other chapters is that on "Public Policy towards Corporation Profits." The matter is really very simple. Our rapacious demagogues lay down the principle that any profits beyond the legal rate of interest, if made by a corporation, are excessive. There is no justification whatever for such a rule. So far as monopoly is concerned, all land-owners are no better than corporations—many of them cannot so well justify their gains. If a business is managed with exceptional skill and sagacity, its owners ought to be allowed to enjoy the profits they have made, whether the business is incorporated or not. There is no ground for the position of the demagogues; but they have made it in some States the position of the public. Hence, as Mr. Greene points out, the necessity of increasing the share capital of successful companies. If they declare dividends of 12 per cent., the newspapers will rage and demand legislative action. But if they double the number of their shares, and declare 6 per cent. dividends, although there will be a temporary outcry over "stockwatering," the thing will blow over and the dividend rate will not attract continual attention. But Mr. Greene's words of wisdom are not likely to reach the politicians, and the howl over "corporate greed" will be the slogan of our coming political struggles.

Gerbert; Un Pape philosophe, d'après l'histoire et d'après la légende. Par F. Picavet. [Bibliothèque de l'École des Hautes Études] Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1897.

The fortunes of Gerbert of Aurillac illustrate one of the leading causes of the domination obtained by the Church. For centuries it afforded the one opening through which men of low extraction, but of exceptional intellectual vigor, could carve for themselves a career and gratify ambition to the utmost. Through the enforcement of celibacy, its high places—save in unusual cases of demoralization—were relieved from the limitations of hereditary descent, and through successive generations it constantly drew into its service the keenest and most active minds, from among which, by a process of natural selection, were developed those who guided its policy and executed its plans. The simple monk of Aurillac, who, by the sheer force of his brilliant gifts, rose to the archiepiscopal sees of Reims and Ravenna, who bore a leading part in the transfer of the French crown from the Carlovingians to the Capetians, and who finally died in 1003 as Sylvester II., is a type of the men who, amid frequent reverses, built up the supremacy of the mediæval papacy.

Yet even among these men the position of Gerbert is unique in his combination of contemplation and action—of the enthusiastic student, of the supple man of affairs, and of the consummate politician. In his thirst for knowledge of the most diverse kinds he is untiring; he visits Spain to complete his training, and throughout life his constant cry is for books, to procure which he sends parchment and money wherever he can hear of a new manuscript to be copied. As *scholasticus*, or chief of the archiepiscopal schools of Reims, he is equally assiduous in imparting his stores to his disciples. As he himself says in a letter to Ecbert of Tours, "Whether in leisure or in business I teach what I know, and I learn what I do not know." We find him writing treatises on geometry and on arithmetic, and on the mysteries of transubstantiation, or making globes and armillary spheres to demonstrate the relations of the earth to the sun and planets. Science and theology, however, occupy but a portion of his incessant activity, which seeks the acquisition of everything knowable. Music and rhetoric and logic and philosophy command his deepest study, and he is as anxious to perfect himself in the Latin poets as in the 'Categories' of Aristotle or the 'Timæus' of Plato—one would scarce, indeed, expect to find the commentaries of Sergius on Virgil in the hands of a scholar of the tenth century. Yet with him all these varied acquirements were directed to practical ends—to extend the circle of knowledge among his contemporaries, to cultivate a lofty and persuasive eloquence, and to bend men to his will. How he succeeded is seen in his agitated career, during that stormy time in which, spite of repeated vicissitudes, he finally attained the highest dignity in Christendom.

The impression produced by him on the age is indicated by the legend attached to his name. Before a century had passed, men seemed to think that such all-comprehensive knowledge and such glittering success could have been acquired only by a compact with the demon. As the story grew, it was adorned with fantastic marvels, and throughout the middle ages Gerbert passed unquestioned as a magician who, on his death-bed, had confessed his crimes and in expiation had ordered his body to be cut in pieces. No subsequent pope ventured to assume his ill-omened name, in spite of the attractiveness surrounding that of Sylvester, who, in mediæval belief, had brought about the conversion of the Roman Empire. Curiously enough, moreover, when enlightenment began to reject the marvellous stories of the older chroniclers, he became the subject of a debate which rendered him even more distasteful to the orthodox. In the

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Capetian revolution he had displaced from the see of Reims Archbishop Arnoul, a natural son of King Lothair. John XV. espoused the cause of the deposed prelate, and, after a five years' struggle, Gerbert was forced to yield. During the conflict he expressed himself in vigorous terms against the pretensions of the Holy See to intervene in a local question, and he did not recant on assuming the tiara, as Pius II. subsequently did when he publicly condemned the opinions which he had uttered as Aeneas Sylvius. In the sixteenth century the reformers resuscitated Gerbert's writings as an efficient weapon in their quarrel with Rome, which naturally led the papalists to revile him on other grounds than his cultivation of forbidden arts. The question has been warmly contested to the present day, and Gerbert's memory has been subjected to vicissitudes as marked as those which distinguished his living career.

It is therefore a real service which M. Picavet has rendered by his minute examination of Gerbert's life and environment. He has exhausted the scanty sources remaining of the period, and has made a microscopic examination of Gerbert's writings, especially of his letters, in the effort to determine what manner of man he was and to set forth the motives of his acts. If in this he has somewhat unduly eulogized his hero, the fault is venial. Unfortunately, however, in emulating German thoroughness of research he has caught something of German prolixity and dulness, and we miss the lucidity of style and the crispness of presentment which we are accustomed to expect in French writing. It was not necessary, moreover, for the exaltation of Gerbert, to cast a slur on Abelard (p. 200) as denouncing mathematics in a passage which self-evidently refers to mathematics in the then generally accepted sense of astrology and magic. We might also take exception to the unqualified statement (p. 4) that about 432 St. Patrick converted Ireland, thus apparently assuming the identity of Patrick with the Palladius who Bede tells us was sent by Cœlestin I., in the eighth year of Theodosius II., to the Christianized Scots as their first bishop.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, W. B. The Great Island; or Cast Away in Papua. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. 75c.
Art and Life, and the Building and Decoration of Cities. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Aylesworth, B. O. Song and Fable. Des Moines: Kenyon Press.
Balzac, H. de. Lost Illusions. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Bascom, Prof. John. Evolution and Religion. Putnams. $1.25.
Bayliss, Clara K. In Brook and Bayou. Appletons. 60c.
Berghaus, H. Chart of the World. 12th ed. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Berwick, John. The Secret of Saint Florel. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bigham, Clive. A Ride through Western Asia. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Blodgett, Mabel F. At the Queen's Mercy. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.25.
Boldrewood, Rolf. My Run Home. Macmillan. $1.25.
Borsari, Luigi. Topografia di Roma Antica. Con 7 Tavoli. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Bradford, Rev. A. H. The Growing Revelation. Macmillan. $1.50.
Chamberlain, Rev. N. H. Samuel Sewall and the World He Lived in. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Collar, W. C. Via Latina: An Easy Latin Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Conway, Sir W. M. The First Crossing of Spitzbergen. London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $10.
Crawford, F. M. A Rose of Yesterday. Macmillan. $1.25.
Dickens, Charles. Nicholas Nickleby. 2 vols. [Gadshill Edition.] London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $3.
Fytche, M. Amelia. Kerchiefs to Hunt Souls. F. T. Neely.
Hudson, W. C. An American Cavalier. Cassell. 50c.
Kuhne, Louis. Facial Diagnosis. New York: A. F. Reinhold. $1.
Lewis, Prof. E. H. A First Book in Writing English. Macmillan. 80c.
Link, S. A. William Gilmore Simms. [Pioneers of Southern Literature.] Nashville: Barber & Smith. 10c.
Luce, Robert. Going Abroad? Some Advice. Boston: R. & L. Luce. $1.
Mace, Prof. W. H. Method in History. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Read, Opie. "Odd Folks." F. T. Neely.

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